The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 4, 1889.

The Week.

PRESIDENT HARRISON has now made appointments to the leading foreign missions. In order to show them in comparison with those made by his predecessor, we arrange them in parallel columns:

	Cleveland's Appointments.	Harrison's Appointments.
Great Britain.	E. J. Phelps.....	Robert T. Lincoln
France.....	Robert M. McLane.	Whitelaw Reid.
Germany	Geo. H. Pendleton.	M. Halstead.
Russia.....	G. V. N. Lothrop...	Allen T. Rice.
Austria	A. R. Lawton.....	Fred D. Grant.
Italy.....	John B. Stallo.....	Albert Porter.
Spain.....	J. L. M. Curry.....	T. W. Palmer.
Chili	Wm. R. Roberts...	Patrick Egan.

We think it will be admitted by most Republicans that Mr. Cleveland's list represents a higher level of intellectual culture and attainment than Mr. Harrison's, and consequently that the standing of the country abroad, in so far as it depends upon the quality of our diplomatic representatives, will be somewhat less distinguished in the next four years than it has been in the past four. This is not true in all particulars, but it is true in the average, and is what Republicans of discernment are saying to each other to-day.

The appointment of Mr. Robert T. Lincoln for Minister to England is highly respectable. It fits in with the spirit of reverence which all Americans hold for the name of Lincoln. It goes side by side with the appointment of Col. Fred. Grant for Minister to Austria. Both nominations, if we look upon a foreign mission as "something to get," are admirably bestowed. But upon any other theory we must be allowed to say that a better choice might have been made in either case. Mr. Lincoln is not one of the foremost lawyers in the country. He is a respectable lawyer, but many degrees inferior to Mr. Phelps as a representative of American culture and intellectual power. This is no disparagement to Mr. Lincoln, who is still a young man who has his spurs to earn. There are other members of the Chicago bar who would have filled this place to better advantage. Still, Mr. Lincoln will, if he accepts the place, make a creditable ambassador.

Nothing could be more absurd than the talk of some thoughtless editors about the Senate's action in the case of Mr. Halstead being an attempt to "muzzle the press." On the contrary, it is the confirmation of an editor's nomination which muzzles a newspaper, and his rejection which removes the muzzle. This is strikingly demonstrated by the contrast between the present attitude of the New York *Tribune* and the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette*. The *Tribune's* editor was nominated for Minister to France and confirmed by the Senate. The result is, that the *Tribune* has no opinion to express on the most important events of the day, like the selection of a Minister to England, and has had not one word to say on the action of the Senate in the Halstead case. On the other hand, the editor of the Cincinnati *Commercial Gazette* was nominated for Minister to Germany and rejected by the Senate. The result is, that this journal is expressing its opinions on all questions of the day with a freedom and emphasis not surpassed by any other member of the press.

We would not be understood as implying that the course of the journal controlled by the Minister to France is improper. Its silence when criticism might be expected is simply a recognition of the duty of the place-holder, which of course, under the circumstances, far transcends in importance the prerogative of the editor. Whitelaw Reid as a private citizen might and ought to express his views about the Administration with the utmost freedom. But Whitelaw Reid as Minister to France is himself a part of the Administration, and it would be both indecorous and unjust for him to find fault with his superiors. While not legally an impeachable offence, it would be morally a gross breach of all the proprieties for a mere official inferior such as Whitelaw Reid, Minister to France, now is, to express views about his official superiors such as Whitelaw Reid, private citizen, might and should express. Nobody need fear any harm to "freedom of the press" from such an event as Mr. Halstead's rejection. It is the confirmation of the Whitelaw Reids and Allen Thorndike Rices which really muzzles the press.

We observe with genuine sorrow that Col. Elliott F. Shepard's depression, caused by the Administration's foreign appointments, is increasing. It has been with extreme difficulty that he has been able to comment upon the selections for the French, Austrian, Italian, and Spanish Missions; and when those for the English, Russian, and German came along, he was only partially equal to the emergency. He had a few cold, formal words of approval for Messrs. Lincoln and Halstead, but for Mr. Rice nothing but silence. Why speech should have failed him in the presence of the good fortune of this fellow editorial thinker, we can, of course, only surmise; but we infer that it was because of a conviction that in some way the selection of Mr. Rice emphasized the cruel neglect of himself more strongly than that of any one else could have done. Both men had come into the ranks of the party thinkers in the same way; and, however religious the Colonel's continual contemplation of the Scriptures may have made him, he was obviously unable to see, when one was taken and the other left, why he should have been the one overlooked.

President Harrison has not yet made any changes in what may be styled the accounting department of the Government. Secretary Windom, having had some experience under a previous administration as head of the Treasury, doubtless understands the true functions of the auditors and comptrollers, and is presumably disinclined to urge the removal of these officers merely to give their places to "workers." Even if we cannot fully agree with the declaration made by Mr. Madison in the debate of 1789, upon the bill organizing the Treasury, that the comptroller should hold his office by a tenure independent of the executive branch of the Government, and even if we cannot imitate the example of nearly every country of Europe by establishing a permanent court of accounts, consisting of eminent magistrates holding office by a stable tenure, all who have any knowledge of our Treasury system must admit that the officers charged with the settlement of public accounts, the adjudication of claims, and the control of those who receive and disburse the funds of the Government, do not fall within the class which ought to be changed with a change of administration. These officers are not in confidential relations with the heads of departments; on the contrary, they are a check upon their expenditures. After the incessant friction of many years, it was declared by law that the balances stated and certified by the auditors and comptrollers upon the settlement of public accounts should not be changed or modified by the heads of departments, but should be conclusive upon the executive branch of the Government, subject only to revision by Congress or the proper courts. This law, enacted in 1868, ended the struggle of eighty years—a struggle which Madison had foreseen—and resulted in securing the independence of the accounting officers, so far as their judicial duties are concerned, of even the head of their own department.

An admirable description of what an auditor or comptroller should be was made in 1855 by Mr. Guthrie, who came into closer relations with these officers than did any other Secretary in recent times, and whose administration was so able and painstaking that its benefits are experienced to-day in every bureau of the Treasury. "To constitute a good auditor and a good comptroller," he said, "requires legal ability of a high order, a special knowledge of our fiscal and disbursement laws and regulations, coupled with unabating industry, unbending integrity, and promptitude of decision." If there be any one now in office with these qualifications, he ought to be retained; and if removals are made or vacancies in any way caused, President Harrison cannot do better than to apply rigidly the tests above mentioned to every applicant for the place of auditor or comptroller.

The well-informed correspondent of the Philadelphia *Ledger* telegraphs the positive

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statement that Mr. John Field has accepted the offer of the Philadelphia Post-office, and will be appointed to the position. Mr. Field is a merchant of the highest standing, who was an active member of the Committee of One Hundred organized to break up the infamous Republican ring which disgraced the city a dozen years ago, and has always been so much of a Mugwump as to bolt any nomination of his party which he considered unfit. He will accept the place on the distinct understanding that the office is to be run on business principles. The selection of a business man of the Field type to succeed a mere politician as Postmaster of Philadelphia, will naturally be held to involve the defeat of the effort now making to supplant with a mere politician the Postmaster who has so long conducted the New York office on the very principles which Mr. Field represents. Simultaneously to appoint John Field and dismiss Henry G. Pearson would be acts of flagrant inconsistency.

Secretary Tracy continues to lay down rules regarding his proposed conduct of the Navy Department which the public will remember, and by his adherence to which he will be judged. Politicians of the "Al" Daggett type have been talking loudly about making Brooklyn a Republican city through the use of the navy-yard patronage, and behaving generally as though this branch of the Federal Government were to become simply a part of the Republican machine. Secretary Tracy appears to have become tired of this, and authorizes the Washington correspondent of the Brooklyn *Eagle* to say that he is "unalterably opposed to Federal interference in State and municipal elections"; that "such experiments in the past have reacted disastrously upon those engaged in them"; that while regarding the approaching municipal campaign in Brooklyn as one of great importance, he does not intend that the Navy Department shall interfere in the slightest degree; that "the navy-yard will not be used to promote the election of any candidate for office"; in short, that "the good of the service, not the requirements of the political situation, is the thing to be considered." These are admirable sentiments to utter, but the people will only be satisfied with their execution.

The disaster at Samoa ought surely to furnish food for reflection to the believers in special providences, for it looks like supernatural mockery of the fuss the three Powers have been making over these unfortunate islands. The Germans have some commercial interests in them, and the British have possibly some political interest in them, because they are really, geographically considered, Australian dependencies. But what interest have we worth the sacrifice of a naval squadron and fifty lives? It is almost an accident that the ships have not been lost in a naval engagement with the Germans, for a hot-headed officer might at any moment during the past three months have precipitated a conflict. The only excuse for our being there at all is the suggestion of somebody, ten or twelve years ago, that it would be a good place for a coaling-station, and that we were in great need of one in that part of the Pacific. But in order to have a coaling-station it is not necessary to keep a fleet there. We have a concession for the purpose at Pago-Pago, on the other side of the island, where there is, we believe, a decent harbor, and, having this, all we needed to have whatever coal we wanted was to contract with a respectable coal-dealer to deposit a certain number of tons at that point, and put a storekeeper in charge of it. Nobody has disputed our right to this coal station, or questioned the propriety of our keeping coal in it. The fleet has not been collected there for that purpose. It went to support our Consul in a dispute with the Germans, the merits of which nobody clearly understands. Our trade with the island amounts to nothing, and can never amount to anything under our present tariff, if under any. The Germans and British would beat us on the spot, even if Auckland, which is only five days distant, were not the natural market for residents on the island. That we have any political interests to look after in an island 6,000 miles distant from our nearest frontier, worth the exposure of our navy to the risks from which so many gallant men have perished, will not be seriously maintained. The island is a dangerous place, as we see, in time of peace, and it would be still more dangerous in time of war.

Another serious outbreak of race prejudice is reported from Ohio. New Richmond, a town of 3,000 inhabitants in Clermont County, has about 700 white school-children to 300 black. After the repeal of the "black laws" two years ago, and the consequent throwing open of the public schools of the State to children of both races on equal terms, the negroes of New Richmond were persuaded to have their children kept in separate rooms, and thus virtually allow the old line of distinction to be maintained. But one negro, James Ringold, decided to insist upon his rights, and sent his children into a room occupied by white children. The little negroes were abused and made miserable in every way, and finally Ringold appealed to the courts to protect him and them, suing the Superintendent of Schools and thirteen prominent citizens for $5,000 damages. On Thursday last the Circuit Court decided in his favor, giving him one cent and costs. This showed the negroes generally that they could legally send their children into the rooms occupied by white children, and they did so on Friday. Great excitement resulted, and so much disgust was expressed that on Saturday the School Board closed the schools for the remaining three months of the school year, as the only way out of the difficulty. The situation is thus described in a despatch to the *Times* of March 31: "This has been one of the most exciting Sundays the place has ever known. The streets have been crowded all day. All other topics were forgotten. Ministers counselled forbearance, and wise heads attempted to calm the impetuous. Each side professes to fear violence from the other. All the teachers will sue for their salaries for the remainder of the term, and costly litigation, if nothing else, is sure to follow. There is a prospect that a mandamus will be asked for in the morning to compel the School Board to reopen the schools."

These outbreaks of race prejudice in Ohio (for the New Richmond incident is only the latest in a long series) may well be associated with the alarm now felt by the intelligent and well-to-do white citizens of Topeka, Kan., lest their city shall be bankrupted by the votes of the poor and ignorant negroes who flocked thither a few years ago; and with the unanimous protest of the whole Republican press last winter against the proposed admission of New Mexico as a State, because of the ignorance of the white inhabitants of that Territory — ignorance not so dense or widespread as that which prevails among the blacks in Southern States. All these incidents serve to illuminate the Southern problem, and they ought to show the most partisan the need of charity. Hereafter, when we hear of some abuse of a Southern negro by a Southern white, let us recall how negro children have been treated by whites in more than one Ohio town; when we find Southern whites complaining that the unrestricted rule of the blacks would involve the community in financial ruin, let us think of Topeka's complaint; when we are told by Southern Democrats that the control of a Southern State by its majority of ignorant blacks would be intolerable, let us remember that the Republican party of the North refused to allow the majority of ignorant whites in New Mexico a share in the government of the Union because such an idea was intolerable.

The "exodus" of negroes from North Carolina is assuming large proportions. The most striking feature of the movement is the fact that most of the emigrants go to Arkansas, the State where the Clayton murder recently occurred, and where, according to Republican organs, the negroes are allowed the enjoyment of no rights. This would seem to indicate that the average negro does not care much for the reputation of a State or the opinion of a Republican organ. The simple truth about the "exodus" is, that it is a melancholy illustration of the credulity of the race, most of the misguided people who are leaving North Carolina having swallowed all the stories of the promoters of the movement about Arkansas being a land flowing with milk and honey.

A project is said to be on foot to establish a chair of Protectionism in Yale University on an endowment of $100,000. Undoubtedly the money can be raised. Protectionism can do almost anything that calls merely for cash. Leaving to the President and Fellows of Yale the question whether protectionism is a science distinct from political economy, or whether, being within the purview of political economy, it can be taught by one professor as true, and derided by another as false, we have a suggestion to make to the contributors of the endowment fund. This

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is, that they shall define Protectionism in the terms that they are willing to stand by and "bet their money on." This is the more necessary, since the writings of Prof. Robert Ellis Thompson, the only professor of protectionism that we know of, are at variance in many important points with the teachings of more recent instructors, whose speeches adorn or encumber the pages of the *Congressional Record*, and are especially at variance with the last Chicago platform. If an agreement can be reached as to the meaning and definition of protectionism, we could put our hand on the right man for the professorship at once. We should choose above all competitors Mr. Allen Thorndike Rice. Mr. Rice signalized himself as a professor of Protectionism in a remarkable article in the *North American Review* for October, 1888, entitled "Maxims and Markets," in the course of which he threw off the jewel of thought that this country resumed specie payments by fiat or legerdemain, or in some way peculiarly American, thus silencing a great English statesman and political economist who couldn't understand how the thing was done.

The demand of the Aldermen to be allowed to participate prominently in the Centennial celebration destroys the last lingering hope of making it anything of a pageant, or keeping the social or ancestral element in any way prominent in it. It is now plain, and it ought to have been plain from the beginning to old New Yorkers like the members of the Committee, that to attempt any great public ceremony in this city, without making it wholly political or official, was to attempt the impossible. It would have been impossible even if there were in the city any "society" whose claims to distinction in the proper sense of the term could withstand even the criticism of an Alderman. But the most ignorant Alderman in the Board would have no difficulty in "making hay" of any extended lists of "first families," which any "society leader" would draw up, that was based on anything but money; and when it comes to comparing purses, the Alderman, of course, likes to be present and have his say. There is a certain number of historic families in New York who, on the historic plan, ought to be represented on an occasion like this, but the moneyed families do not acknowledge their preëminence, and will not yield the *pas* to them; and why, then, should the Aldermen, every one of whom may be, for aught we know, the father of a young man who will "lead the german" ten or fifteen years hence, and grumble over the presence of "the ignorant foreigners"? We trust the discords now impeding the preparations may be overcome, but they will only be overcome by the hearty and ungrudging acceptance of the democratic principle, and the offer of a cordial welcome to both the Legislators and the Aldermen.

The proposal of the French Government to prosecute Boulanger for a "conspiracy against the State" is one of the sink-or-swim resolutions which are usually interpreted as a sign of desperation. The prosecution of a man who has a large body of voters at his back is a doubtful experiment in any State, and particularly in France, where people so readily take up with a would-be dictator. It is not possible to punish him in any effective way without killing him, and no Government nowadays likes to kill a political opponent. If he is not killed, the chances are ten to one in favor of his becoming a martyr. The trial and imprisonment of Louis Napoleon in 1840 undoubtedly helped him on his way to the Empire in 1851, and if the French Government, instead of expelling the Comte de Paris, had seized him and locked him up, it would have done a good deal for the restoration of the monarchy. That Boulanger has been plotting and intriguing against the Republic, there is no question—in fact, he confesses it himself; but the trouble is, that a very large body of voters think he did right. M. Vacherot, who is not a bad observer, writes a forecast to the *Figaro*, which seems to have a great deal of wisdom in it. He says the election which will take place next fall will doubtless send up a strong anti-Republican majority, but that when Boulanger steps in to claim the benefit of it, the Bonapartists, Legitimists, and Conservatives generally will laugh at him, and will find themselves in exactly the same situation as in 1876, when they had to keep the Republic going because, as M. Thiers said, it was that which divided them the least. In other words, it is one thing to use Boulanger and break into the house, and another to install him as master.

Gen. Boulanger's "plan," over which there has been more or less fun, as he was said to have deposited it with a notary, is leaking out gradually, and has the merit of extreme simplicity, if it has no other. His supporters are not as reticent as he, and they, therefore, cheerfully justify their hopes. They say that he is to get a majority at the fall elections in the Chamber, and when President Carnot proposes to form a ministry, every member of the majority is to be forbidden to take office under him. Should he then seek a Cabinet in the minority, it is to be overthrown by a hostile vote on the first day. Then, after many fruitless efforts, he is to resign, as MacMahon, and Thiers, and Grévy did, and Boulanger is to be elected in his place, after which we are to see what we shall see.

The Tories have all along suffered from the want of a competent leader in the House of Commons. The gentleman who fills that place, Mr. Smith the newsdealer, is a sort of Wanamaker, who has much money and a good deal of business ability, but no oratorical power whatever. This want is painfully felt on ceremonial occasions like that of Friday, when the usual tributes were paid to John Bright's memory by the various party chiefs; all others being, by immemorial and most salutary usage, condemned to silence. Gladstone is, of course, always great and graceful at such times; and though his touch has undoubtedly grown heavier through age, he had in this case the inestimable qualification for the task, of long friendship and close intercourse with the departed worthy. Disraeli, who was always good on parade, did well in elegiac oratory, but broke down under the strain put on him by having to speak for the Opposition on the Duke of Wellington in 1851, and stole bodily, and applied to the Duke as his own, a passage from Thiers's History about the French General St. Cyr. He never quite recovered from this. Palmerston was very neat in this sort of work, but never put any feeling into it, and it needs feeling to be effective. His best effort was a tribute to Cavour which charmed the Italians. No harder task of the kind has ever fallen to any one than Mr. Gladstone in eulogizing Disraeli, whom he knew to be a charlatan, and who had grossly abused him personally, but he acquitted himself well. Who can take his place in functions of this sort, it is hard to say. The Tories are not likely to supply anybody, the Tory temper being especially hostile to effusiveness. John Morley has more promise in this direction than any of the younger men.

The latest news from the Argentine Republic shows little relief in the financial strain under which that country is laboring. Gold is at a premium of fifty-nine, with the tendency upwards; so that specie payments must still be remote. The late readjustment of the Cabinet is largely due to the pressure of the monetary situation. The Minister of the Interior, Dr. Wilde, resigns, and his place is taken by the late Minister of Finance, Dr. Pachico, who in turn is supplanted by Señor Barela in the Treasury. Minister Pachico has complained bitterly of the extravagance of some of his colleagues, notably of the Minister of the Interior, and his transfer to that office is taken to mean a determination to institute some of those economies which he has been maintaining were entirely feasible. The new Minister of Finance signalizes his accession by moving in a matter of great importance. The law guaranteeing the bank notes in circulation did so on condition that they should be withdrawn if depreciated more than 20 per cent. A banking commission has charge of the execution of this law, but has taken no steps to enforce it, although the notes are now depreciated as much as 30 per cent. Minister Barela now calls for prompt action, threatening direct Government intervention unless something is speedily done. As the customs duties are payable in the depreciated currency, while the Treasury must meet many of its obligations in gold, the reasonableness of the Secretary's position is obvious. There is no lack, however, of great apparent prosperity on the part of banks and the large corporations. Most of the annual reports show large profits. The Banco Nacional, for example, did a business of $2,500,000,000 in 1888, and distributed profits at the rate of 18 per cent.

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THE SENATE AND THE PRESS.

THE explanation of Mr. Halstead's rejection given by his colleague, Mr. Richard Smith, in his own paper, is that it was due to his denunciations of the Senate for its refusal to investigate the mode in which Senator Payne obtained his seat in that body, and that the general violence of his language towards other persons and on other subjects had really little or nothing to do with it. We may concede this to be a just and reasonable explanation, without going quite so far as Mr. Smith would have us, and anticipate the abolition of the Senate as a result of its treatment of Mr. Halstead. It is certainly a view which has a great deal to support it in recorded facts, and one which, for the credit of journalism, we are very willing to accept.

But if well-founded, what a strong argument it furnishes against editorial office-seeking. The Senate, as well as every other legislative or administrative body in a free country, must always remain, and of right ought to remain, exposed to newspaper criticism, and sometimes to newspaper denunciation. To watch the Senate and comment on its proceedings in terms of censure, when the occasion calls for it, is one of the most important functions of the American press. Any editor who failed to do it would fail in one of his duties to the public. That he should do it sometimes in language of unnecessary violence, and that in doing it he should sometimes be unjust to particular individuals, is what we must expect, and for the most part forgive, as long as editors are human and have to do battle for their party.

On the other hand, too, as long as Senators are human, we must expect them to resent criticism of any kind with more or less warmth, and especially criticism which they feel to be unjust. Senators so calm and judicial-minded, and so sensible of the value of an unbridled press, as to welcome editorial denunciation of their own corruption, or ignorance, or selfishness, are hardly to be looked for in our time. In truth, if this kind of man presented himself for election to any Legislature in the country, the chances are that he would be rejected peremptorily as too good for ordinary political work.

Our United States Senators, in fact, like our State Senators and Representatives, and like our editors, are the natural products of American society in its present stage of progress. They are men of like passions with Mr. Halstead and Mr. Richard Smith. They hate their enemies, love their friends, and curse those who despitefully use them and persecute them, with Homeric freshness and simplicity. For this very reason, no editor who seeks to do his duty to the public by exposing their corruption or incapacity should ever put himself in a position to ask favors of them. When Mr. Halstead undertook to expose the frauds of the Payne election, and accused every Senator who opposed the investigation of being influenced by "boodle," he should have well understood that his action made it impossible for him to beg for office at the hands of the men on whom he had cast imputations so odious. If his words were not meant to be taken seriously, they ought not to have been uttered. If they were meant to be taken seriously, he ought to have expected that the persons at whom they were aimed would resent them by any legitimate means. To have confirmed Mr. Halstead as fit to represent the Government to a first-class Power would have been almost an endorsement of his charges—that is, an admission that he was a trustworthy and careful man, who weighed well his utterances and did not make accusations lightly.

The remoter effects of this affair on the relations of the press to the Senate, if party editors continue to be office-seekers, cannot fail to be serious. Editors who are looking forward to foreign missions or consulships when their party comes into power, and have their hearts set on getting them, will, after Mr. Halstead's sad experience, certainly be very careful how they handle the Senatorial body. They will avoid making even justifiable reflections on Senatorial integrity, and will be disposed to let Senatorial delinquencies generally go untouched, sooner than offend Senatorial sensibilities. In fact, a better warning to the ambitious members of the editorial fraternity than the rejection of Mr. Halstead could hardly have been devised. But we think, if the Senate was justified in its action in this case, it is bound to carry its regard for the decencies one step further.

If it be its duty to protect its own dignity against editorial assaults, it is also its duty to protect the dignity of other branches of the Government. If it would have been improper to send to represent this country abroad a man who has spoken of the American Senate as Mr. Halstead has done, it is also improper to send abroad men who have spoken of the President of the United States as Mr. Reid has done, and of the American Secretary of State as Mr. Thorndike Rice has done. The appearance as diplomatic representatives at foreign courts of two persons who have described the highest officers of their own Government in the terms employed by these two worthies, is something which we think has not been witnessed in the civilized world except after a revolution. Whatever Mr. Cleveland's faults have been, he was the President of the United States for four years, during which Mr. Whitelaw Reid was daily covering him with coarse abuse and ridicule. During this same period Mr. Bayard was the member of the Cabinet who represented the nation in its communications with foreign Powers, and while in this position he was made the object of an elaborate and blackguard personal attack by Mr. Thorndike Rice. Now, we do not go so far as to maintain that editors guilty of such conduct should get no office at home under the new Administration, although we think President Harrison would do much both for public and private morality if he made this a rule. But we do maintain that the Senate ought to see to it that the authors of such national disgrace are not sent to represent us abroad. It ought to see that respectable and patriotic Americans who go to Paris or St. Petersburg are not confronted while there with descriptions published by their own Ministers at these capitals, in which the two leading officers of their Government are described as mountebanks, louts, ignoramuses, and impostors. Any protection of dignity against ruffianly editors which the Senate can command, is just as much due to the Executive as to the Senate itself, and we may add that, inasmuch as the President is, in his relation to foreigners, always the same person, President Harrison would have shown more respect for his office if he had refrained from sending to represent this country abroad coarse revilers of his predecessor.

NEGRO CONVICTS IN SOUTH CAROLINA.

THE official statement of the pardons granted by the Governor of South Carolina during 1888 throws a good deal of light on the fate of negroes accused of crime in the South. It is sufficiently startling to be told that of the 894 convicts in the South Carolina penitentiary 843 are colored, and it savors a bit of slavery to find that of the 70 negroes who were subjects of executive clemency during the year, 25 were serving life sentences and 13 others terms of imprisonment of ten or more years; but when the reasons given for the pardons are heard, we find a state of things hardly credible in a civilized community.

The first case in the pamphlet is that of a negro convicted in January, 1876, of grand larceny, and sentenced to one year in the penitentiary; in November, 1887, he is pardoned because he has served his sentence, and is needed as a witness for the State in an important case. How long he would have remained in prison but for this case, we have no means of judging. On p. 16 is the case of two colored children, aged nine and ten years, who were sentenced to imprisonment for life for burglary and larceny of articles not exceeding ten dollars in value. They pleaded guilty and were sentenced without trial. On the same page is the case of Horace Darby, sentenced for life for a similar offence. After allowing him to serve five years in the penitentiary, his prosecutors ask for his release "on the ground that the amount stolen was trifling and the prisoner was very young, and too young to know the gravity of the offence." Thomas Coker, "a small boy" induced by older men to set fire to a building, was sentenced to fifteen years' imprisonment; after serving nearly seven years of his term, he is regarded as sufficiently punished and is pardoned. Another boy of twelve, sentenced for life for arson, is pardoned after six years "on account of his extreme youth." In still another case, "a mere child, perhaps not over ten or twelve years of age," who asserted he was induced by two older boys to break into a house, was allowed to remain in prison a year before he was pardoned. The Supreme Court of the State has recognized the universal rule of law that children under fourteen are presumed to be incapable of committing crime, and that this presumption can only be rebutted by strong and clear proof of criminal intent in the child (State vs. Toney, 15 S. C., 409), but the in-

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ference is strong that in actual practice the fact of color overrides all presumptions.

In July, 1883, Pleasant Austin, colored, "stole about ten or twelve pounds of flour," and was sentenced therefor to imprisonment for life; in February, 1888, his sentence is commuted to imprisonment for five years on the ground that he has been sufficiently punished. There seem to have been mitigating circumstances in the case of Joe Whitmire, who was sentenced for only five years for stealing "some bacon and flour which he needed for his wife and children who were in a starving condition." He had asked a store-keeper for a short credit, and, on being refused, came by night, and, finding the door of the store insecurely fastened by a chair pushed against it, took a small quantity of provisions, but nothing else, although there were a great many other articles in the store. After four years' imprisonment, having "in the judgment of the petitioners, some of the best citizens of Union County, suffered enough," he is allowed to return to his wife and children, assuming, of course, that they have not died of starvation in the meantime.

It is evident that efforts have been made to impress the negro with the majesty of the law. Prince Williams, while a slave, had a wife, although no slave marriage was recognized by the law, and this wife seems to have disappeared, sold perhaps in slavery. At any rate, Prince married again in 1878, and, after living with this wife for ten years, was prosecuted for bigamy, slave marriages having been validated by the Legislature. Immediately on his conviction the prosecuting attorney has the grace to recommend his pardon, stating "that the main object of the prosecution was to vindicate the law on account of the salutary effect upon the people of his race." Dick Ellerbe has reason to be grateful for executive clemency. He was sentenced for life after having been induced "to plead guilty, while in liquor, by a white man." His eight children are helpless and destitute, as both mother and grandmother have died during the imprisonment. The petitioners, "persons of prominence," firmly believe that Dick will make a good citizen if released, and he will be allowed to return to his family, or what may be left of it, next October.

Nor must the negro be allowed to think that the law can be trifled with. Certainly Eli Moore does not think so; he was sentenced to ten years' imprisonment for manslaughter. Eight of the jurors who tried the case ask for his pardon on the ground "that there is reason to believe that Moore did not do the shooting, and that it was done by a white man who left the State immediately after the shooting, and did not return until after the trial." It apparently did not seem worth while to trouble this white man by ascertaining the truth of the matter, which was adjusted by a commutation of Moore's sentence from ten years to five.

There are several cases in this report which go to show that the State is quite ready to dispense with the formality of the actual commission of a crime by a negro in order to secure his services as a convict. Andrew Glover, colored, was sentenced to twelve years' imprisonment for arson. He was convicted on circumstantial evidence of previous threats, and of footprints found near the burned premises which were "very similar to tracks made by the defendant." On the other hand, fifteen or twenty witnesses swore positively that, at the time the fire was discovered, Glover was at church some two miles away. After three years have gone by, "some of the best and most highly respected citizens of York County" request his pardon. In 1877 Capers Allen, also colored, was accused of murder. His employer at once came forward and testified that the prisoner, who was quite young, was four miles away when the murder was committed. Subsequently, the boy was rearrested without his employer's knowledge, tried, and sentenced to be hanged, the sentence being commuted by Gov. Hampton to imprisonment for life. The employer has made repeated efforts to secure his release, but not until eleven years have gone by is he finally successful. James Stowe was sentenced to be hanged for setting fire to a store in which no one slept. A petition, signed by all the prominent members of the Yorkville bar, states that Stowe was convicted on his own confession, and that "he did not himself set fire to the building, but was on the watch for other parties who did the firing." His sentence was promptly commuted to imprisonment for life at hard labor.

The difference between the treatment of white and black is strikingly brought out on one page of this report. A negro was pardoned after serving fourteen of a thirty years' sentence for manslaughter because the crime was committed under great provocation, and there was a very bitter feeling against the prisoner at the time. In the other case, a white man was sentenced for five years for a like offence. At the end of a year a petition for his pardon is presented from all the jurymen who tried the case, from the relatives of the murdered man, stating that it was the wish of the deceased that the murderer should not be prosecuted, and from the inevitable leading citizens. The prosecuting attorney joins in the petition, naïvely adding that he promised the prisoner's attorney at the trial to recommend a pardon at the end of one year. This seems to have been such a pleasant, friendly murder that the scruples of the prosecuting attorney in thus waiting a year are hard to understand.

The method by which the administration of the law is kept impartial to all, white and black alike, is ingenious. The statute punishing burglary, for instance, prescribes imprisonment for life as a penalty, but with an important proviso that if the jury recommend the prisoner to mercy, the punishment shall be reduced to imprisonment for not less than five years. This allows juries to recommend white offenders to mercy, while the negroes suffer the full penalty of the law.

It is to be noted that the cases we have cited are but a few selected from a large number, and that there are other cases in this official report fully up to the standard of justice established in those we have given.

THE STORY OF OKLAHOMA.

WHO are the Oklahoma boomers, and why are they so eager to get into Oklahoma? These are questions which many newspaper readers are asking, and the facts necessary for intelligent answers to these questions make an interesting story.

Oklahoma, in the language of the Chickasaw Indians, signifies "beautiful land." It was the name given by the Indians to a tract of country containing almost two million acres and situated nearly in the centre of the Indian Territory. Some of the land is poor, but the larger part of it is the richest and most productive known in the world. It is also believed to contain valuable mineral deposits. It was originally a part of the Louisiana purchase, and was included in the tract assigned by Congress in 1830 to be divided up among various Indian tribes, to be theirs for ever. Oklahoma under this act of Congress became the property of the Creek tribe, and remained in their undisputed possession till 1856. In that year they made a treaty with the Seminoles by which the two tribes held the country jointly till 1866, when the two consented to a sale of it to the United States for about fifteen cents an acre. A few months after this sale was completed, a bill was rushed through Congress granting to the Atlantic and Pacific Railway a right of way through the territory thus purchased, together with a grant of alternate sections of land for forty miles on each side of the railway. It was then generally believed that the purchase of Oklahoma had been advocated and accomplished with a view to giving the railway company this valuable grant. The company made a survey for the proposed line, but never built it. It was decided by the courts that the land was not yet open to settlement, and would not be so thrown open except by proclamation from the President of the United States. It was expressly provided in the railway charter that it should be forfeited if the officials of the company in any way aided or abetted any movement for the opening of the Indian Territory for settlement. If they built the road without settlers, it would be a losing venture; if they attempted to get settlers along its line, they would lose their charter. What should be done under these conditions?

Here we get a glimpse of what is generally believed to be the first cause of the boomers. They were men hired secretly by the railway company to break into Oklahoma, in defiance of the United States Government, and found settlements. This is denied by the railway authorities, and can, of course, never be proved. There were undoubtedly other causes, the chief of which was the richness of the coveted lands, and the desire of men of roving and adventurous spirit to get possession of them. The first band of boomers started under the leadership of an Indiana adventurer named Payne, who, having served through the war and got into politics, first heard of the Oklahoma country while serving as assistant doorkeeper in the House of Representatives at Washington. He went to

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Kansas in the fall of 1878, and began to harangue the people on the subject of invasion and possession. In company with other men of similar characteristics, he organized a land company with an alleged capital of $2,000,000, called the "Oklahoma Town Company," and sold shares at five dollars each. They also organized the "Southwest Colony Company," with a capital of $1,000,000, and sold shares in that at two dollars each. After vigorous agitating they succeeded in getting together, in the spring of 1880, about twenty-five men who were willing to begin the invasion.

After dodging the United States troops for several days, they at last reached a suitable point in Oklahoma, and chose a site for their town. They called it "Ewing," after Gen. Thomas Ewing of Ohio, gave it an area of six square miles, built a log-house, and began to cut down trees and lay out town lots. They got on famously for about three weeks, when a squad of United States troops, consisting of twelve men and accompanied by twelve Indian scouts, appeared and took away the entire population to prison. After two weeks' imprisonment, Payne and his companions were discharged. They found themselves heroes, for the West looked upon them as sufferers from the despotic power of the Government. Payne soon discovered that he could now obtain all the followers he desired, and in the fall of 1880 he had a new expedition of 200 men in camp on the Kansas border, eager for a fresh invasion. The troops were watching them, however, and there were thus organized two hostile camps near the border, which were the beginnings of the remarkable boomer settlements which exist there to-day.

From the autumn of 1880 till that of 1884 there were invasions at pretty regular intervals. Squads of boomers would slip by the troops, invade Oklahoma, locate lands, be discovered by the troops and ejected, only to start again. The largest expedition ever organized by Payne was in May, 1884, when he got into Oklahoma with a colony of 600 men, women, and children, and founded the town of Rock Falls. He opened a "drug store," with a license to sell liquor, had a provision store, a schoolhouse, a printing-office, and a newspaper, and established regular religious services, there being a parson among the colonists. This colony was so large that it required time to get together a sufficient expelling force, and it was not till August following that Payne was again arrested and his town broken up. He was kept in prison only a short time, and was busily at work organizing a fresh expedition when death overtook him. Other leaders followed him, however, and the business of invading Oklahoma has gone on, with constantly increasing force, until the present time, where there is upon the border line a series of towns, containing at least 10,000 "boomers," all waiting for the time to come when they can rush in and take possession of the coveted land.

They can take possession legally on the 22d of the present month, when, under the recent proclamation of the President, the new Territory of Oklahoma will be thrown open for settlement. This is in accordance with an act of Congress creating the new Territory out of certain lands which the Government has acquired by purchase from the Indians. The Territory thus formed contains much more than the original tract of Oklahoma, which embraced less than 2,000,000 acres. It extends from the Canadian River to the Kansas border, and northwesterly as far as No Man's Land; and its total area is estimated at some 23,000,000 acres.

There is probably nowhere else in the world such a curious collection of settlements as are now stretched along the border lines of the new Territory waiting for the 22d of April to arrive. They have regular names, like Beaver City and Purcell, with hotels and stores. Some of them have a population of 1,500, and at one store the gross receipts in a single day are said to have reached $500. Yet there is scarcely a permanent building in any of them. One town is famous for having a plastered house in which the railway agent lives. For the most part the boomers are living in dug-outs, or sod houses, with some rough wooden shanties and many tents. Yet business is carried on regularly, and there is a scale of rentals ranging from $5 to $25 a year. Clothing is the most difficult thing to obtain, and the 10,000 boomers who are thus waiting on the threshold of the promised land are clad more like Indians than civilized people. In addition to these 10,000, there are said to be many thousands more in the regular towns and settlements near the border, and it is estimated that the new Territory may have a population of 100,000 a few months after it is thrown open for settlement. The rush is ominous for the remainder of the Indian Territory, for the same greedy eyes are upon that as have been fastened so eagerly upon the portion about to be gained.

EDMOND SCHERER.

THROUGH the death of M. Edmond Scherer, France loses one of her wisest writers on public affairs, and on the whole—now that Sainte-Beuve is gone—her solidest critic. Although seventy-four years old, M. Scherer was still physically robust, and one might still even say intellectually young, for he had in a marked degree that capacity which sober, inquisitive, and judicial minds sometimes possess, of rejuvenating themselves by an unflagging interest in facts and an untiring impulse to see things in the truest light. Subjective natures, as Goethe says, soon speak out their little inner store, and run to decay in mannerism. M. Scherer long ago outgrew that possibility, and for years past has stood for the best type of the Liberal, as distinguished from the Radical; in politics, and of the man of reason as distinguished from the man of temperament in literature. Persons as scholarly as he, and as free from all sentimental illusions, are apt to lack energy in practical affairs, because they see so many sides to every question. But Scherer had none of the scepticism of the dilettant, when it came to concrete problems. Since France became a republic, few of her citizens have had more resolute opinions about public matters, or exerted a more salutary influence by voice and pen, whether as deputy, as member of the "Commission pour la libération du Territoire," as Senator, or as journalist, in the columns of the *Temps*.

His fibre was much more moralistic than that of most members of the literary class in France. His Protestant blood and training had probably much to do with this, while his education in England and Germany gave him a judgment whose genuine cosmopolitanism was in strong contrast to that curious "note of provinciality" which always strikes *nous autres* in the writings of the Parisian brotherhood to which he belonged. His early interests were theological. He was, in fact, for five years Professor of Exegesis in Geneva, and his contributions to the *Revue de Théologie* and to the *Bibliothèque Universelle* have been republished in his two volumes of 'Mélanges de Critique et d'Histoire.' But he formally broke with orthodoxy in 1850; and though we find him occasionally going back to the old fields, as in his excellent essay on Hegel, or his wonderful chapter on Mohammed, or here and there dropping into pure speculation for a page or so, secular history and literature became more and more exclusively the subjects of his pen.

Matthew Arnold, in his essays "A French Critic on Milton" and "A French Critic on Goethe," has made extracts from Scherer which give a very good notion of his merits. On the whole, no one has written more adequately of Milton than this Frenchman, no one more justly of Byron, no one more truly of Goethe—provided always that it be admissible to write analytically, critically, and judicially of artists and poets at all. For, *mutatis mutandis*, that is always true which Mr. Lewes wrote in a passage quoted by Arnold, after giving Scherer's remarks on Goethe's "Egmont": "When all is said, the reader thinks of *Egmont* and *Clärchen*, and flings criticism to the winds. These are the figures which remain in the memory—bright, genial, glorious creations, comparable to any to be found in the long galleries of art!" Nobody has more charmingly spoken of the inadequacy of the merely critical point of view than M. Scherer himself at the end of one of his articles on Renan. But grant that point of view, and he is always masterly. He has in a superlative degree the faculty for which Arnold praises us Yankees, of "thinking straight." He makes immediately for the vitals of his subject, and the essential and the unimportant range themselves with singular clearness under his pen. Philosophic training has doubtless much to do with this. Add the unfailing French literary form, wit, freedom, variety, copiousness, and exactness, and there is no living master of English, except Mr. John Morley, who in critical writing can be compared with him at all. Among the French one can only think of Renan and of Taine. Taine is of course more powerful, but far less flexible and sane. Renan has flexibility enough, in all conscience, but no solidity. How neatly, by the way, M. Scherer says the most cutting possible thing of him, in a sentence written long ago:

"Sa grande préoccupation, c'est l'idéal, c'est le devoir, c'est le bien des âmes. Mais M. Renan, en prenant cure d'âmes, ne risque-t-il pas de tomber dans un nouvel extrême? *Ne nous offre-t-il pas ce que personne ne lui demande?*"

It was not so easy in 1860 as it is now, when M. Renan's principles are in a state of liquefaction, to see him to be no genuine moralist, but only an artist working with a moralist's palette: an incomparable artist, it is true, and one whose gift of *magic* the soberer Scherer never shared!

How *can* a critic, a serious critic, have any

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magic? Criticism and magic are "incompossibles." The greater and more important the subject, the more, as M. Scherer somewhere says, does he feel "la nécessité des distinctions et des réserves," and the colder and more pedagogic is he liable to appear to readers who perhaps are "genial." In looking over M. Scherer's many volumes of 'Études sur la Littérature' once more, we must confess to having ourselves but just now got a slightly desolate and bleak impression from the impartial telling of truths which there prevails. His pages are a sort of foretaste of the day of judgment—an occasion from which no urbanity in the form of the proceedings, we may be sure, will ever dispel all constraint and gloom. His whole philosophy was austere—the Genevese overtopped the Parisian. He ended in absolute agnosticism. "Pessimism," he says, "has no more place in true thinking than optimism has. Both are equally subjective, equally impertinent manners of looking at the world." And again, apropos of a sentence of Sainte-Beuve about human life:

"'Fugitive illusion traced for an instant on the ocean of universal illusion!' Is it then in those terms that the experience of the centuries sums itself up? Must humanity repeat for ever the *vanitas vanitatum* of the ancient sage? . . . And why not? If there be any greatness in the reed which feels its weakness, is there none in a vanity which knows itself for what it is? Has any man tasted without secret joy the bitterness which comes from going to the bottom of things? And after all, when once illusion knows itself, is it illusion still? Does it not in a manner triumph over itself? Does it not attain to the sovereign reality, that of the thought which thinks itself, that of the dream which knows itself as dream, of the nothingness which ceases to be such by being conscious, and affirming what it is?"

Rather rarefied cheer, to be sure; and an unfair specimen to quote where we are quoting so little, for Scherer was invariably sincere, and this (by a rare exception) is purely rhetorical stuff. But the *form* of it, at least, is consolatory, and, empty as it is, it pretends to be a *rally*.

Although there are fortunately pure philosophers still in France who have kept their faith in the nature of things, an absolute atheism appears to be the doom of all purely literary Frenchmen in these latter days, and the outcome of their hopeless view of life is expressed now in levity, now in cynicism, now in despair. Scherer, to his credit be it said, never dropped out of the moral attitude. He never wrote a really enervating word, and that in Paris is a great distinction *par le temps qui court*. But our pen has (half fortuitously) run into so sombre a track that in justice to M. Scherer we must leave off with a different note. Many passages we might quote, witty, delicate, profound, but our space is at an end. To show how genial and charming M. Scherer could be also, let this description of what he calls the "gastronomic idylls" of Erckmann-Chatrian suffice. 'Twould spoil it to translate:

"Nous sommes introduits ici dans un monde d'appétits et de jouissances dont nous n'avons aucune idée de ce côté des Vosges. Quelle chère, grands dieux! Quelle vie plantureuse! Quelle cuisine et quels estomacs! On ne voit que teints fleuris, mentons rebondis, serviettes autour du cou. Il semble que la table soit toujours mise, la cave toujours ouverte. Les buffets gémissent sous les mets succulents. Les cuillers plongent dans des soupes épaisses. Ce sont de toutes parts des poissons énormes, des rôtis gigantesques, des entassements de saucisses et de choucroûte. Puis vient toute l'armée des pâtes et des pâtisseries alsaciennes. . . . On arrose tout cela des meilleurs vins du Rhin et du Palatinat. Après le vin, les choppes innombrables; avec la choppe la pipe au long tuyau et à la vaste cheminée. Ainsi passent les heures. On lâche peu à peu les boutons de son gilet. On rit d'un gros rire franc. Une certaine onction religieuse se mêle à cette goinfrerie: chacun, tout en se caressant la panse, rend grâce au Seigneur de ses nombreux bienfaits. Tels sont les repas qu'aiment nos écrivains; telle est la solide trame de vie animale sur laquelle ils brodent leurs scènes de mœurs bourgeoises et leurs sentimentales amourettes. C'est frais comme une cave, c'est coloré comme un état de boucher, c'est confortable et pacifiant comme le réfectoire d'une abbaye féodale."

ARIZONA AS A STATE.

PRESCOTT, March 15.

THE acts of Congress which have just admitted four of the Territories into the Union, at one time included Arizona as a possible State. It does not seem likely that the latter will come in at present. Even if Congress had passed an enabling act this session, and left the question to be decided by the Territory, popular sentiment is certainly against the proposal. A Territory with an area of 113,000 square miles and a population of 70,000 cannot be called anything but very thinly settled. Arizona has only ten counties all told. The division and establishment of counties everywhere in this country follows pretty closely the growth of population and the legal needs of a people; and a Territory with three counties nearly as large as Maine, and the rest about the size of Connecticut, must be considered of a rather low political organization.

These facts reflect themselves in the popular opinion that a State government would now cost more than its worth. The political enthusiasms of Arizona, like those of other Southern States, are apt to be rather abstract and extreme, but they do not yet go the length of disregarding so hard an argument as this of dollars and cents. So the proposal of Statehood falls rather flat, except with a few elderly politicians, who feel that they are fitted to adorn the Senate Chamber of Congress without further delay.

But even if Arizona does not enter the Union with the Dakotas, the event is only put off for a little while. If the present policy of Congress continues, party politics, either on one side or the other, will soon force the responsibilities of Statehood on all the Territories. It may not be uninteresting, in view of this, to ask what kind of a State this one of the furthest Southwest will be, what peculiar manner of men and political morals it will add to the nation.

In a most suggestive article on "The American Commonwealth," in an early number of the *Political Science Quarterly*, Prof. John W. Burgess deprecates this creation of any more States out of the territory west of the Rocky Mountains, at least for a long while. Following Webster, he regards this territory as the Asia of our country. He sees here the chief dangers which, if not checked by stronger forces, make for the dissolution of the Union. It is separated from the Central and Eastern States by the natural boundary of the Rockies. But the peculiar topography and climate of these high desert plains and mountains separate them still more definitely from the level, fertile valley of the Mississippi and its tributaries. The only occupations possible on any extended scale are mining and grazing, both of which tend to produce a system of manners and morals, personal and political, entirely unlike those of agricultural communities. Here, too, are found those alien elements of race and religion, the Chinese and the Mormons, with whom the nation is already struggling.

Among these possible causes of political alienation pointed out by Prof. Burgess, Arizona is yet happily free from the last one. Her neighbors on all sides have each their peculiar problem of a population hostile or indifferent to American institutions. California has the Chinese, Utah the Mormons, and New Mexico a large Mexican population, but Arizona is not yet troubled by any of the three. The Chinese have not made their way here in any great numbers, and are lost in the much larger white population. They fall naturally into such employments as they seem specially fitted for—cooking, washing, kitchen-gardening, driving pack-trains, or placer-mining on a small scale. As there are scarcely enough of them to fill these positions, their presence excites no hostility on the part of the laborers, who look upon them with much contemptuous good nature. On the other hand, the Chinese themselves are certainly more enterprising than those of California. Most of them have adopted American dress, and all are quick to pick up American business ways. In all cases they insist on as high wages as the white laborer. I know two among the few who have worked for me who have taught themselves to write English. It is true that it is very amusing and very poor English, but as they have picked it up by themselves, in the midst of unremitting manual labor, it seems to me to show an unsuspected adaptability on their part. Altogether, the Chinese are as little a political problem for us as the negro is in New York or Massachusetts. As to the Mormons, although they have a few settlements in the southern valleys, the great natural boundary between Utah and Arizona of the Grand Cañon of the Colorado acts as an effectual bar to any large immigration. This is aided by a pretty determined public opinion, which a few years ago promptly convicted and imprisoned several polygamists. The Mexican population also is not large, and is confined to the south. Although the Spaniards very early crept up the valley of the Rio Grande and occupied Santa Fé, they made no headway against the Apache, who was the master of Arizona, but have waited for the Americans to clear the way.

But without these foreign populations to differentiate her from the East, the climate, formation, and scenery of Arizona make her really a foreign country. It may be true in a geographical as well as a political sense, that the whole Western plateau is the Asia of this country, but it is more true to say of Arizona that it is a part of the highlands of Mexico. There is the same dry, thin, clear air, balmy in winter and parching in summer, there is the same striking paucity of animal life and abundance of venomous reptiles. The flora, with its many forms of cactus and strange fantastic growths of the desert, is peculiarly Mexican and unlike that of the East or Northwest. To gain any clear idea of the geographical formation, one has to put aside Eastern experience. There the plains begin at the seashore, and slope gradually upward to the rolling country, into which they merge imperceptibly; the rolling country runs back a hundred miles or so, and gives place almost as imperceptibly to the mountains. Here there is no rolling land. The whole country is a great plain, out of which the mountains rise abruptly in chains or groups. You can stand on the summit of one of these ridges and look off for two hundred miles across a great sea of plain, out of which the mountains, singly or in masses, rise like islands. Yet the comparison is not perfect, for this vast plain is not all at the same level, like the surface of the ocean. Often on crossing a mountain chain one finds that the plain on the other

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side is five hundred, perhaps a thousand feet higher than the one just left. These higher tablelands are the *mesas*. Here snow falls in winter, and some rain in summer, and they are covered with the tall, scattered wild grasses which the cattle feed upon. Higher up and further north, they may be covered with pine forests. On the lower plains there is neither tree nor grass. There is the cactus, clumps of dry, harsh, swordlike plants and thorny, stunted bushes about waist high, but besides these nothing but sun-baked sand.

Nevertheless, these lower plains or deserts have a great advantage over the higher mesas. The rivers that wind their way through them run upon the surface of the ground, like the Mississippi or the Hudson, and when they carry water all the year, it can be drawn off for irrigation and the desert turned into a wonder of blooming fruitfulness. On the higher plains scarcely a stream runs upon the surface of the earth. Every little creek, which a man can step across even at its flood, is in its "arroyo" or wash, fifty or a hundred feet below the surface; while the greater rivers, like the Colorado, flow silently and uselessly away in their cañons, a thousand or five thousand feet deep.

The occupations of the people can be easily inferred from these geographical features. On the low, irrigated plains are the farmers; on the higher mesas and in the mountain valleys, the cattlemen; and all through the mountains, the miners. A strange farming is this, with irrigation. No watching the skies in torturing fear of drought or flood; at the proper time a head-gate is opened in the canal, and so many inches of water allowed to flow over the ground for so many hours or days. Strange crops, too—olives; grapes, to be made into wine or raisins; alfalfa, a thick, rank clover with two, three, or even five crops a year. It is all foreign, Mexican or Italian. But the farmers themselves are not very foreign; they are the same men that settled the Central States, that pushed on into Texas, that are now filling up the Northwest. They are pioneers from Eastern farms, or immigrants from Europe, who perhaps have stopped awhile in Minnesota or Kansas and failed. They work the farms with their own hands, struggle helplessly with the great railroads over rates, and in too many instances wear away an unhappy life under the money-lender's 2 per cent. a month.

Far away from these fruitful plains are the cattlemen. Wherever, in the valleys of the mountains or at their foot where the mesas begin, there is a stream of living water, a cowboy's ranch will be found. The word "ranch" suggests, perhaps, a group of neat, white adobe buildings, protected by a high adobe wall, hidden in fruit and shade trees, and surrounded with waving fields of wheat or barley. In Arizona it seldom means more than a muddy drinking hole for cattle, often in the summer time not more than ten feet across, with half-a-dozen cottonwoods about it, a rude log-cabin or house of unplaned boards, without a fence or crop of any kind. The farm is the wild grass of the mesa or the oakbrush on the mountain sides, fed upon by all the cattle of the adjacent ranches mingled together, and the ranch is merely the watering-place where the animals come in to drink once a day.

When one speaks of the mines in Arizona, he does not generally mean the great dividend-paying lodes, with their shafts a thousand feet deep and their hundreds of miners, organized like an army, delving away in the bowels of the earth. Of course, Arizona has its great mines, where the hundred-stamp mills pound deafeningly away at the ore day and night, Sunday and week-day, month in and month out. But, by the miners, it is more likely that he means the men who are scattered all through the mountains prospecting for mines or working small veins of ore alone or with one or two partners. By miners he means Jim Thompson, who has five men at work on his new find over in Bradshaw basin, or old Jack Smith, who, with one partner, has been working the "Blue Lead" since 1872. Of course, they all hope to "strike it rich" in a few days or weeks and produce a Comstock; but meanwhile they are working away in little camps of two or five or ten, "making grub" or "fair wages," or perhaps a little more.

This, then, is Arizona as we see it. At present there is no foreign element large enough to form a special problem. There are not many large cattle companies nor a great many large mines. A population of Americans is scattered widely and thinly throughout the Territory on farms, ranches, and small mines. Everything seems favorable to the growth of a strong American, almost a New England, civilization, except the physical features of the country. These are all foreign: a parched soil or mountains rugged beyond description, a thin electric air, a cloudless, rainless sky, summer six months of the year. Will the country conquer the men and produce a race alien to its brothers of the East, or will the men conquer the country and plant a commonwealth truly American? So far, Congress has chosen and shaped its institutions, but when once this fostering hand is withdrawn and the Territory becomes a State, its future development rests with itself alone. Will the State of Arizona in the end be American, or Mexican, or what? If the experiment is successful, there will be men who will ask why we should stop here, when our manifest destiny is so clearly pointing out the road to Mexico. If the experiment fails, the limits of the United States on the south are probably drawn once for all. It will be proved that the political institutions of this American Government are peculiarly adapted to temperate and northern countries rather than to southern; to agricultural and manufacturing, rather than grazing and mining communities.

I do not attempt to predict the final result. The country is too new, the people too lately come from older and settled States, to make any predictions worth much. One notices many of the virtues and vices of a scattered frontier people—hospitality, generosity, improvidence, recklessness of life and limb, careless independence and good nature. The gambling houses and saloons are plenty and prosperous, the churches very scattered and poor. But these are peculiarities which will wear away with time. On the other hand, Arizona has one of the best and most expensive common-school systems in the country. I believe that it is true that she spends more money on schools *per capita*, and pays higher salaries to teachers, than any other State or Territory. It is a strange sight, after riding all day across a trackless desert or through almost impassable mountains, to come suddenly upon a little schoolhouse, with children playing about the door and the ponies that are to take them home picketed out upon the mesa. There will probably not be a dozen scholars in all; the law says that no new school shall be established without at least ten "census children" in the district, or continued without an average attendance of five. The land around the school-house is as barren as the mountains over which you have just ridden, for there are no farms or crops to show any evidence of civilization, and the scattered ranch-houses are very likely hidden away in distant coves or gulches. The school-house itself will probably be the only evidence of the presence of mankind in the wilderness. Altogether this is a sight not common in all frontier countries. It is not Mexican, but truly American, nor is it likely to wear away with time.

As to the direct effect of the climate, there has not been time enough to test it. Few men have been here as long as twenty years, and the most thriving towns of the south are scarcely ten years old. Even a cloudless sky, a summer six or eight months long, a temperature of 110° day after day, cannot do their full work in a single year. And yet one cannot help but notice, among all but the latest comers, an indolence, a peculiar indifference, a certain relaxation of the physical and moral fibre. No one works very long or very hard unless under special stimulus. The ranchman's labor is compressed into one or two months of the year, and his life the other ten is one of easy indolence. The miners need the promise of a great fortune to keep them at work at all. Even the "booms" of the great irrigated valleys of the south have something unreal about them. The booms of Californian cities and those of the Northwest have a real energy behind them, however unsubstantial the results may be. The business men organize, advertise, send out lecturers and boomers, charter excursion parties, build huge hotels—all is energy, rush, and confusion. *We* rather talk about what a rush there would be if we should do these things, and encourage one another to go ahead and boom.

Of the relaxation of personal morals it is somewhat more difficult to speak; yet no one can deny that the bonds of business and personal morality bind but lightly in many cases. We do not respect a man the more because he has lent himself to a barefaced swindle in regard to a mine, and thereby made himself rich, but we look on him with a sort of amused indulgence. So in politics, we realize that the little biennial Legislature, with its upper house of only twelve members, is very corrupt; we even know how much this or that member got for a particular bill; but we do not so much as discuss how the evil might be remedied. In private life we have very few wife-beaters, or men who are anything but very liberal towards their families. So long as husband and wife live together, it is likely that they live in comfort and mutual affection. But should the husband go away to another town, or should the wife have been left back East a few years ago, when the man first came out, it is very possible that he will forget ever to go back. In this lotus-land it is so easy to forget.

But none of these criticisms go very deep. I have wished rather to emphasize Arizona's political problem as a whole. We are apt to forget that each of the great Western Territories has an individuality of its own. We know that New York is not Massachusetts or South Carolina, but we lump together one-third of the whole country as the "Territories," or the "Great Western Plateau." But Arizona will soon be called upon to try a political experiment that has not been tried before. Texas and California are both agricultural States; Nevada, Utah, Montana, and the rest are Northern States. New Mexico's politics are further complicated by the presence of a large foreign population. In Arizona we have the simplest factors—a Mexican country and climate, industries chiefly mining and grazing, an American population. What result will Arizona the State work out of these elements?

W. G. B.

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MARSHAL VILLARS.

PARIS, March 21, 1889.

THE Marquis de Vogüé is a member of the section of the Institute which is called the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques. He was, during the Presidency of Marshal MacMahon, the Ambassador of France at Vienna. He is publishing now, for the Society of the History of France, the authentic text of the life of Marshal Villars, written by the Marshal himself. But while thus engaged, he has written two volumes under the title of 'Villars, from his Correspondence and some Inedited Documents.' The correspondence with the Elector of Bavaria, with Mme. de Maintenon, and with Prince Eugene of Savoy has been largely used in this work, and the correspondence with the Elector has even been given *in extenso*. M. de Vogüé has had access also to the Archives of Count Törring, where he found the correspondence of the Elector Max Emanuel with Count Monasterol, his envoy at the Court of France — a correspondence which furnishes many valuable details on the memorable campaigns of Villars in 1702 and 1703. He has used, further, some of the Ormond papers. James Butler, Duke of Ormond, who commanded the English army in Flanders after the recall of Marlborough, left many papers which finally passed into the hands of M. Severne, and were sold at public auction in London, November 5, 1886. As for the Villars papers proper—that is to say, those which came from the Castle of Villars—they are in the possession of M. de Vogüé, with the exception of a few which are in the Archives of the Castle of Vaux, now owned by M. Sommier.

Saint-Simon was very hard on Villars, and it is impossible to deny that the opinions of Saint-Simon are gradually becoming, more or less, the judgments of history. He gives us many interesting details on the family of Villars, and the relations of his father (who was the grandson of a *greffier* of Condrieu), with Mme. Scarron, who became Mme. de Maintenon. The famous Villars was sent to Vienna as Ambassador, and married on his return Mlle. de Varangeville, who had a large fortune. He was ordered to join Catinat with a large detachment of the army of Flanders and crossed the Rhine—a bold operation which Catinat had refused to attempt; he made the crossing at Neubourg, near Huningue, received the attack of Prince Louis of Baden, thought himself lost for a moment, but gained the victory and was appointed Marshal of France on account of it. The King sent him a package on which was written, "M. le Marquis de Villars." Inside was a letter, in the King's own hand, subscribed to "my cousin Marshal Villars." Villars, who knew the value of Mme. de. Maintenon's friendship, had been careful to send the news of his victory of Friedlingen by the Comte d'Ayen, the nephew of Mme. de Maintenon, though D'Ayen had taken no part in the battle.

"Good fortune, an extraordinary good fortune," says Saint-Simon, "served him all his lifetime. He was a sufficiently tall man, brown, well made, fat in after life without being heavy, with an open physiognomy, apparently and really a little mad, with corresponding gestures. An unmeasured ambition which stopped at nothing; a high opinion of himself, which was shared by nobody but the King; a great servility and suppleness towards whoever could help him; himself incapable of loving or serving anybody, or of any feeling of gratitude. Brilliant valor, great activity, unequalled audacity, an effrontery which bore everything, with an excessive vanity which never left him. . . . Under the magnificence of a Gascon, he concealed an extreme avarice, the avidity of a harpy, which made him get mountains of gold stolen during the wars, and, without any shame, making pleasantries on the subject, ordering detachments himself for plunder, directing the movements of his armies for that object. Incapable of any detail on the questions of subsistence, forage, marching, which he left to his subordinates, always taking to himself the honor of the result."

I take only a part of this long portrait, the most important part; but Saint-Simon insists on Villars's love of cards, on his immorality; he tries in every way to show that he owed everything to his servility to Mme. de Maintenon, to the infatuation of the King, and to his luck. Generals cannot be always lucky; Villars may have had more luck than others, he also had a dash, a boldness, a clearness of view, which by some may be considered equivalent to genius. It is clear that M. de Vogüé takes this view of him; he writes less as a moralist than as an historian, and judges by the results more than by the inducements and motives. He shows well the place which Bavaria had at the time in the affairs of Europe, and, generally speaking, his book bears the mark of the diplomat. The Electorate of Bavaria stood between the rival houses of France and Austria; the house of Bavaria might have played in the affairs of Germany the part which the house of Savoy played in our century in Italy. The Bavarian Princes had not the spirit necessary for the accomplishment of great destinies. Max Emanuel, with whom Villars had constantly to deal, was brave, he had a passion for war, but he had none of the qualities of the general. Louis XIV. had great views for him, wishing to oppose him to Austria, to place the house of Wittelsbach as high as the house of Hapsburg; but Max Emanuel did not enter fully into these views. He had received an Italian and French education, and did not much like to live in Munich, which was then a city of brick and wood. He spent most of his time in hunting, in the numerous pavilions of his forests. He tried to ape Louis XIV., and began at Schleissheim a colossal Versailles which he could not finish.

After having crossed the Rhine at Huningue and gained the battle of Friedlingen, Villars had to effect his junction with Max Emanuel; but the Elector was already afraid of his ally, and began to negotiate secretly with Austria; he wilfully missed the occasion of joining Villars, who was much irritated, reëntered Alsace, and made his winter quarters at Strasbourg. In the spring he crossed the Rhine again, and besieged Kehl, which he took; he crossed the Black Forest, and this time he joined the Elector. He planned a march on Vienna, but the Elector found fault with his arrangements, and an expedition to Tyrol was decided on. Marshal Vendôme was to join Villars in that mountainous district, but, being slow, did not arrive in time; the Tyrolese rose against the French and the Bavarians, as they did in the beginning of our century against the troops of Napoleon. Villars was obliged to intrench himself at Dillingen, his communications were cut. The Prince of Baden combined a great attack and a concentration of forces against Villars and Max Emanuel; Villars and the Elector, instead of uniting their action, and notwithstanding the danger of their situation, disagreed, and quarrelled constantly. Villars asked finally to be recalled. At that very moment he gained the victory of Höchstädt, which was very glorious for him and gave confidence to his army. This victory did not reëstablish harmony between himself and the Elector. Louis XIV. had finally authorized Villars to bring back his army to France, and invited Max Emanuel to treat with the Emperor. He sent Tallard to help the movement of Villars across the Black Forest. The victory of Höchstädt changed these plans; Tallard was sent to Landau, and Villars was relieved of his command, which was given to Marshal Marsin.

A new mission was given to Villars, the pacification of Languedoc, where the Protestants were in insurrection. It must be acknowledged that in this difficult and painful task Villars showed much moderation. I have spoken recently of his rôle in Provence, where M. de Grignan was governor, and of the negotiation of Villars with the chief of the Camisards, Jean Cavalier. In a letter to Mme. de Maintenon, who was his great protector, Villars says: "The King did me the honor to say, when he honored me with his last orders, that if I gained him two battles on the frontier, I should not render him a greater service than if I ended a revolt on which his enemies based great hopes. It is ended, and this good fortune accrues to me after the taking of Kehl, the passage of the Black Mountains, and a battle well gained in the heart of the Empire. I do not speak of what preceded these small services. They alone can contribute to my elevation. I do not expect it from any intrigue at the court, but from your goodness and from the opinion which I flatter myself his Majesty has formed of me."

We must pass rapidly over the campaign of Villars in the valley of the Moselle in 1705, in Alsace and in Germany in 1706 and 1707, in Savoy in 1708. The campaign of 1709 was marked by the battle of Malplaquet (September 20), one of the bloodiest battles ever fought in Flanders. Villars wrote to the King: "The enemy can say that they gained the battle, as they remained on the battle-field, but your Majesty's army has truly gained it, by reason of the prodigious number of deaths caused among our enemies." The allies lost 22,000 men, the French lost only half that number. Prince Eugene and Marlborough had found in Villars a foeman worthy of them. Louis XIV. chose to adopt the version of Villars, and made him a peer of the realm. He understood that words have their power, that it was necessary to maintain the prestige of the army. Villars had been wounded; he came to Versailles as soon as he could be transported. His journey was a triumphal march. At Versailles the King gave him the apartment of the Prince of Conti, and made him a visit. The whole court was at his feet. Mme. de Maintenon showed him the greatest attentions.

In the following campaign in Flanders, Marlborough and Eugene gained some small advantages; Villars was obliged to go to the waters of Bourbonne for his wound. In 1711, negotiations were opened with England, pending which Louis XIV. forced Villars to remain on the defensive. At the end of the year, Marlborough left for England, where he was called in the defence of his political interests. France was in a very critical condition; Eugene was now the only commander of the allied forces, but he was a very able commander, and Louis XIV. saw his kingdom ruined, his dynasty struck by repeated blows. The scene of his adieu to Villars at the opening of the campaign of 1712 is not forgotten: "God punishes me," said the proud old King; "I have richly deserved it; but let us forget our domestic sorrows, and see what can be done to prevent the misfortunes of the State." He confided to Villars the supreme command, asked him what he should advise him to do, if his last army was beaten, and if the road of Paris were open to an invasion. The Marshal remained silent. "Well," said the King, "I will tell you what I think: I know the river Somme; there are some fortified places on it—Péronne, St.-Quentin; I would go to some of those places, bring together

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my last troops, make a last effort with you; we would die together or save the State, for I would never allow the enemy to approach my capital."

Villars saved France at Denain, and Eugene was obliged to evacuate the French territory. The peace of Utrecht was signed soon afterwards. Villars met Eugene again about the diplomatic table at the Congress of Baden, and they signed together the general peace of 1714. M. de Vogüé speaks with fewer details of the latter part of Villars's life. Villars remained happy to the end; his luck was almost a quality, as it inspired him and those who were round him with confidence. Saint-Simon says that this insolent good fortune disgusted him with history. Villars died on June 17, 1734; Eugene survived him only two years.

Correspondence.

IOWA PROHIBITION—ELECTION LAW.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The prohibitory law makes itself felt now in this part of the State chiefly in two ways. The Supreme Court has decided recently that the sale of cider is illegal if the cider contains a trace of alcohol, even though it be not intoxicating. The decision does not probably disturb the farmers, as Iowa raises but few apples. Our Mayor issued the following notice: "All parties selling beverages of any kind are hereby cautioned that they must obey the law, which prohibits the sale of all beverages containing alcohol. This includes cider as it is now sold. I will prosecute all parties continuing its sale after February 20, 1889." A similar warning was given by the County Attorney, who is reported two weeks later as saying: "I gave that notice that those who were selling the article and who did not wish to violate the law might dispose of their stock. Some have become very huffy over it and continue to sell. My next notice to them will be an official one."

There is at present no legal sale of intoxicating liquors for any purpose in this city or county, and has been none since October 1, 1888. Previously there were in our city two or three permits to sell for medical and mechanical use. But the revised law in the interest of prohibition cancelled them all, and now allows them to be issued only under more stringent and burdensome conditions. "There are no pharmacists in this county holding permits to sell intoxicating liquors," says our county auditor under date of March 13. "We have no permit-holders in the county." The county contains more than 500 square miles and 20,000 inhabitants. Alcohol and intoxicating liquor can be imported from another State by any individual for his own use, now that our law forbidding importation has been declared void by the United States Supreme Court. It would be presuming to say that all which is now used in the county is that imported, but certainly there are no legal sales.

A more generally acceptable experiment for the last three years has been a law relating to elections. A registration of voters is made in all cities which have a population of 2,500 or more. For each voting precinct registrars are appointed, one from each of the two leading parties at the preceding election. The voter appears before them, answers questions as to such matters as birthplace and present and last previous residence, which are recorded, and he then signs his name. The registry is completed several days before election, and no one is allowed to vote whose name is not down. The registrars meet, however, on election day to add the name of any one who has become qualified by age or length of residence since the day of registration, or who was then out of town, or whose name has been improperly struck from the list. The registration lasts for four years, the list being revised before each annual election. On election day no one is allowed to loiter within a hundred feet of the polls, or solicit a voter or offer a ticket or display his own. Tickets are sometimes left on a stand near by. The only persons who remain at the polls are the officers and the representatives (not exceeding three) of each party. The law has worked well; the operation of voting is now as quiet and orderly as business at a bank.

F. P. B.

Grinnell, Iowa, March 27, 1889.

JURISDICTION WITHIN THREE MILES OF THE COAST.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: On page 258 of the last number of the *Nation* you say: "Although we cannot give law to the subjects of other nations on water *more than a maritime league* from our shore"—and this in reference to the Alaska seal fishery. As your statements are entitled to respect, I venture to call your attention to a decision which, I think, puts an end to that pretension, viz., The Queen vs. Keyn, 2 Exchequer Division, 63 to 239. The question was, Had an English court jurisdiction of the crime of manslaughter committed by the master of a German ship in the British Channel within a league of the English shore? The decision was that it had not. The person killed was an English subject, and the killing was by negligent running over a sailboat and drowning a person on board; and the act was found to be manslaughter by the jury. So that the only question was, Had the court jurisdiction to try the man? Cockburn, C. J., on page 197, says: "*Ex concessis* the jurisdiction over foreigners on foreign ships never really existed; at all events, it has long been dead and buried—even the ghost of it has been laid." On page 196, speaking of the doctrine of sovereignty in the narrow seas: "Who at this day would venture to affirm that the sovereignty thus asserted in those times existed now? . . . What foreign government would not repel such a pretension?" It is interesting to notice that Judge Hopkinson is cited as deciding the same point, Baldwin 15, which was in 1829. Possibly this may be rested on the form of the legislation.

R. C. M.

Philadelphia, March 28, 1889.

A POSTAL ADMONITION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I often receive from the United States closed envelopes, mostly containing printed circulars, stamped two cents, instead of five; and on every such envelope one has to pay a fine of threepence, or six cents. By allowing this fact to be made known, you will, I have no doubt, confer a favor on many persons in this country besides

Your obedient servant, X. Y. Z.

London, England, March 19, 1889.

Notes.

In our recent review of Mr. McCulloch's 'Men and Measures,' an article is cited on Grant and Rawlins by Gen. W. F. Smith. Gen. Smith and Gen. James H. Wilson had articles in successive numbers of the *Century*, and, by a slip of the pen, the article referred to was ascribed to Gen. Smith, though the author is Gen. Wilson. It will be found in the *Century* of October, 1885. The reader interested in Gen. Rawlins will do well to consult the appreciative article, likewise by Gen. Wilson, in Appletons' Encyclopædia; and it may be noted that the same competent author is now engaged on a biography of the too little known and appreciated Chief of Staff. He is also trying to collect whatever biographical material concerning Gen. Rawlins exists, which may be sent to him at his residence, Wilmington, Del.

Mr. Andrew D. Mellick, jr., Plainfield, N. J., is preparing a work to be sold to subscribers, called 'The Story of an Old Farm; or, Life in New Jersey in the Eighteenth Century'—a semi-social, semi-historical presentation. "Much will be told of early German emigration to the American colonies," the Hessian troops will be vindicated against aspersion, and justice done to the New Jersey Loyalists. The author has every qualification for making a work of this character agreeable and instructive reading.

'Two Chiefs of Dunboy' is the title of Froude's new historical novel to be published this month by Chas. Scribner's Sons. Scribner & Welford will publish immediately a second edition of S. Laing's 'Heimskringla,' revised, with notes, by Prof. Rasmus B. Anderson.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. announce 'Prolegomena to *In Memoriam*,' by Thomas Davidson, with a full index.

T. Y. Crowell & Co. announce for immediate publication a new and cheap edition, in paper covers, of Tolstoi's 'My Religion.'

A new edition of Dr. Louis Starr's 'Hygiene of the Nursery' will be published directly by P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia.

The first volume of Mr. Ernest Law's 'History of Hampton Court Palace' (London: Bell) was devoted to the Tudor Period; the second volume, recently published, covers the Stuart period, the last hundred years of the history of the palace being relegated to a third volume, which is yet to appear. It is a handsome small quarto, abundantly illustrated with views and portraits, most of them from old originals, and, as is natural, varying very much in style and merit. The work is executed with much industry, and contains much graphic detail of the life and events of the period, and deserves to be read in connection with the history of the period. We note especially the Hampton Court Conference of 1604 (p. 32), the confinement of Charles I. in 1647 (p. 130), and the residence of Cromwell (p. 174). Of Cromwell the incident is related (p. 187) that on the occasion of the marriage of his daughter Frances to Mr. Rich, "he amused himself with such vulgar horseplay as throwing about 'the sack posset amongst all the ladies to spoil their clothes, which they took as a favor, and daubed all the stools where they were to sit, with wet sweetmeats.'"

The unending production of introductions to Browning shows no sign of slackening, and if all were as excellent as the latest, 'An Introduction to the Poetry of Robert Browning,' by William John Alexander, Ph.D. (Boston: Ginn & Co.), it would be matter of congratulation. This analysis of the growth of Browning's genius has the great merit of brevity, definiteness, and completeness; the statement of the poet's opinions upon the soul, art, and the present frame of the modern mind towards spiritual matters, is clear and seems to us just; and the limitations which Browning's intellect

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has placed upon his poetry are sharply, indelibly, and, we must add, courageously drawn. The author points out that it is Browning's intellect and not poetic instinct which has made him so fertile in his elder years, and that these later works have meaning for the mind rather than gratification for the poetic susceptibilities; and he shows, in the earlier part, the course of Browning's experiments with the drama, and his avoidance of its incompatibility with his psychological aims by means of the monologue, in which he has done his most perfect poetical work, in a way to leave nothing to be desired. The spirit of temperance and the exercise of judgment throughout may be recommended as exemplary to those who are still engaged in writing these "Introductions."

Browning would have saved a great deal of printer's ink and toilsome mental labor if he had followed the old practice of prefixing to every poem an "argument." The substance of most of these volumes upon him consists of well-meant attempts to supply this deficiency; and to read "arguments" without the verse is tediousness itself. This is one reason why James Fotheringham's 'Studies in the Poetry of Robert Browning' (Scribner & Welford, 1888), in four hundred generous pages, is unreadable. It contains nothing novel in the way of criticism; its grouping of the poems is not determined by a well-made-out principle, and it can only be useful in connection with a study of the poems by one's self. To those who enter on the subject for the first time it may be of value as a diffuse commentary, but it is to the catalogue of commentaries that it must be consigned, and with no high rank among them.

The Cavendish Library receives an interesting addition in a generous selection from the works of Leigh Hunt, both verse and prose, by Charles Kent (Frederick Warne & Co.). Leigh Hunt's place is between that of the essayists of his early years and the journalist of our own time. In literary taste and a certain felicity of phrase, as well as in his subject matter, he reminds us of the past age; but by his extraordinary rapidity and voluminousness of production, the day-to-day character of his writing, the momentary interest of most of it, he is one of ourselves. He was essentially a talker in print—one might say a gossip; there is a good of deal of books, something of not very discriminating travel, and much of the tea-table in his essays; they are all *petite*. The selection does not seem to us well made. The poetry given leaves Hunt far below his reputation, the prose is over-abundant. It is only justice to such a writer to give no more than his best. In verse that was little, in criticism it was considerable; and the happiness of his phrases, the poetic sympathy of his taste with the fanciful and sensuous part of the great poets, and his wide range of enjoyment—not in compass, but in extent—make it well worth saving. As for his essays of the cat-and-canary kind, they were not meant to freight the stream of time. It is no doubt a service to such a man to make selections from his works, and as in his case they have never been collected, it might seem a duty; but the delightfulness of Hunt was largely due to personal charm in the author and the thought of Keats and Shelley; and this is still so vital in the Autobiography and such a volume (to mention a minor work) as the 'Jar of Honey from Mount Hybla,' that the modern reader, with not too much time, had better turn to these to know the man.

Mr. Frank Carr's selections from the essays of Hazlitt in the Camelot series (London: Walter Scott; New York: Thomas Whittaker) make a model volume—just what such a revival of agreeable minor essayists should be. He gives us no more than twenty-four pieces, and chooses them so as to cover the different subjects on which the author customarily wrote—literature, the theatre, men, manners, and books. He has done well, too, to include those essays which are autobiographical, and record the conversation and habits of the wits with whom Hazlitt associated at Lamb's rooms, and which have the pleasantest flavor. The portrait of Coleridge is very effective, and those of Lamb, Godwin, Ayrton, and the rest, though done only by slight strokes, are full of vivacity. One may pass a very pleasant evening in reading the collection, and have at the end a strong impression of the excellence of Hazlitt's style, the sense of having caught the interesting conversation of a group of interesting men, and a kinder feeling for Hazlitt himself than the tradition of him evokes. Mr. Carr is to be congratulated on having presented his author so much to his advantage.

That repository of what is old and good made over into new appearance, "Bohn's Select Library" (Scribner & Welford), brings in olive-green covers Burke's 'The Sublime and Beautiful,' and C. W. F. Cooper's collection of 'Horace's Odes, Englished and Imitated by Various Hands.'

"The Stott Library," a charming little series for the pocket, in clear print, we meet with for the first time in the two-volume edition of the 'Essayes of Montaigne' (London: David Stott). The text is John Florio's translation, ed. 1613, and Mr. John Huntly McCarthy furnishes an introduction. There are two vignette portraits of Montaigne, after steel engravings. Altogether, one could not desire a daintier get-up.

Southey's 'Life of Wesley' is now reprinted, under the editorial care of the Rev. J. A. Atkinson, in the "Cavendish Library" (Frederick Warne & Co.). The text is pretty condensed, but the presswork is good, and the volume has a comely binding. Mr. Atkinson has judiciously rearranged Southey's notes and added sparingly of his own. The familiar likeness of Wesley is prefixed.

Mr. Reginald Wilberforce has both curtailed and added to the Life of his father, the late Bishop Wilberforce, published some sixteen years ago (A. D. F. Randolph & Co.). The present edition is both attractively printed and put on the market at a very reasonable price.

Routledge's "Universal Library," edited by Prof. Henry Morley, having been completed in sixty-three shilling volumes, is succeeded by the "Carisbrooke Library," having the same editor and publishers. The new series will include works too bulky for the earlier, but will never resort to small type for compression, being formed on a larger scale. The editorial introductions will be fuller, and there will be notes. The first volume consists of 'The Tale of a Tub, and Other Works by Jonathan Swift,' and Mr. Morley allows himself some thirty pages by way of biographical preface. The volume ends with the first seven letters from Swift's Journal to Stella.

To the foregoing reprints we can subjoin Bayard Taylor's 'Views Afoot' (New York: John B. Alden).

It is a moot question how best to teach reading in our schools, but custom has produced "readers" in series ranging from first even to sixth. Two illustrated series of four are now on our table, those bearing the name of Stickney (Boston: Ginn & Co.) and Harper's new volumes. There is no little difference between them, and yet they agree substantially, and share to our minds the defects of most similar books that have come under our observation. The editorial contribution is excessive, especially in the older readers; the selection is remarkable for avoidance of the best names in English literature; the poetical extracts are as a rule poor, and, taken together, not indicative of or contributory to a cultivated taste. We cannot say that books like these will have no value as auxiliaries, but by themselves they do not seem ideal instruments. Such leaflets as the Riverside Literature Series of Houghton, Mifflin & Co. make a much nearer approach to what we desire to see.

Natural history has also its serial readers, and here is the sixth in the line prepared by the late Rev. J. G. Wood (Boston School Supply Co.), and the third in the "Nature Readers" of D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 'Sea-Side and Way-Side.' These have but a very limited rhetorical or literary function.

In 1853 the United States Government sent out an expedition to explore the La Plata under the command of Capt. Thomas J. Page, which, though very successful from a scientific point of view, involved this country in difficulties with Paraguay. His son, Capt. John Page, has been continuing his father's work by explorations of the rivers in the northern part of the Argentine Republic, known as the Gran Chaco, an account of which is given in the March Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society. This vast plain, consisting of about 180,000 square miles, is divided into two provinces, the Chaco Austral and the Chaco Central. The former is apparently the richer of the two in natural resources, and is being rapidly developed. The northern province is still practically unknown, though the Government and private companies with Government concessions are making strenuous efforts to open it to settlers. Capt. Page gives a spirited account of his successful rescue of some frontier garrisons in danger of being carried away by a sudden flood, the rivers at such times eating away their banks, though lined with great trees, with incredible rapidity. This article is followed by an interesting description of explorations in the "Glacier Regions of the Selkirk Range," by the Rev. W. S. Green, illustrated by an excellent map. From observations made on the great Illecillewaet Glacier, he estimated that "the centre of the ice had moved along twenty feet in thirteen days." He referred to the terrible destruction of the forests in this region by fire, as did Capt. Wharton, Hydrographer to the Admiralty, in the discussion of the paper before the Society, who said that "any one who wanted to see the Canadian Pacific line in its glory should go there very shortly, because a great deal of its beauty would soon be spoiled."

The *Scottish Geographical Magazine* for March contains an account of the Islands of Melanesia, by R. H. Codrington, D.D., and a description, with elaborate tables and a map, of the earthquake shock in the Edinburgh district January 18, 1889. Mr. Ravenstein, the well-known African cartographer, compares Dr. Livingstone's account of Lake Bangweolo, on the shores of which he died, as given in his unpublished manuscripts, with those of more recent explorers, and constructs a new map of the lake, which is given, together with reproductions of Dr. Livingstone's original maps. He also gives a large number of astronomical and hypsometrical observations made between the years 1866-73 out of a great mass still lying buried in Livingstone's manuscripts.

The Haliburton Society of Windsor, N. S., founded in 1884 "to further in some degree the development of a distinctive literature in Canada," has just printed a paper on Judge Haliburton by Mr. F. B. Crofton of Halifax,

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the first of a proposed series of annual publications. It is a very scholarly and appreciative sketch of the greatest of Nova Scotian writers, and one whose influence was very marked on certain characteristic departments of American literature. Though there are few readers of the 'Clockmaker' to-day, yet many of Sam Slick's shrewd sayings have become household words. Mr. Crofton takes this occasion to correct several blunders in the various biographical notices of Judge Haliburton, two of which, we regret to see, are faithfully copied by the editors of 'Appletons' Cyclopædia of American Biography.'

Mr. Christern sends us the current issue of Louis Figuier's *L'Année Scientifique* for 1888. This annual is too well known to call for comment, having attained its thirty-second year.

Nearly twenty years ago Mr. R. S. Newall erected at his residence, Ferndene, Gateshead, the largest refracting telescope then in existence. It is an excellent glass, of twenty-five inches diameter, and was made by the distinguished optician Cooke of York. Owing to very unfavorable atmospheric conditions at Gateshead, and to other serious reasons, this fine instrument has lain for the most part of this time idle, and its owner now addresses a letter to the Vice-Chancellor of the University of Cambridge, in which he contemplates the generous offer to the University of his telescope, the dome covering it, and other connected instruments. Mr. Newall expresses the hope that the glass may be specially employed in the study of stellar physics, and he wisely asks what proposals the University can make to insure its proper use and maintenance, in case his offer should be acceptable. A syndicate has therefore been appointed, on which Drs. Routh and Glaisher, and Profs. Adams, Liveing, Darwin, and Thomson are associated with the Vice-Chancellor, to consider Mr. Newall's munificent proposal, and report to the Senate the arrangements and expenditure necessary to utilize and maintain the telescope for astronomical and physical research. This instrument stands about sixth in the order of size at present, and is by far the largest telescope now in Great Britain.

The Astronomical Society of the Pacific was organized at a meeting held February 7, and a circular, forming No. 1 of its publications, has just been issued. The officers of the Society are mostly connected with the Lick Observatory, and the present membership is forty, about two-thirds of whom reside in San Francisco. They hope to count in their membership every person on the Pacific Coast who takes a genuine interest in astronomy, whether he has made special studies in this direction or not. The Society is already canvassing all the other societies and technical organizations of the Coast, the colleges and schools of California, and the Government surveys of the State for new members, and it is expected that a vivid interest in the science can be created and fostered, and that the Society will have real weight in the advancement and diffusion of astronomical knowledge. In prospect are the establishment of a high-class astronomical journal, the foundation of a special astronomical library, and the organization of such scientific work as may be advanced by mutual assistance. Three or four hours of Saturday evenings in summer the telescopes of the Lick Observatory are to be put at the disposition of those who attend the Society's meetings on Mount Hamilton, for the purpose of affording actual demonstrations from the heavens of the subjects under discussion. The winter meetings of the Society will be held at San Francisco, where will be its library, collections, etc. It is intended as a popular organization in the best sense of the word, and it is entirely an outgrowth of the coöperation of amateur and professional astronomers in the successful observation of the total eclipse in California last New Year's Day. The circular contains the by-laws of the Society.

"A. I." writes us from New Bedford: "With *topsoltiria* in 'F. H.'s' article on *Topsyturvy* (*Nation*, March 28) may be compared the Scotch *tapsalteerie*, a word on which the Scottish dictionaries throw a good deal of darkness. See Burns, 'Green Grow the Rushes'—

> "'An' warly cares, an' warly men,
> May a' gae *tapsalteerie*, O!'"

—The most important contribution in the April *Scribner's* is Charles Francis Adams's paper upon the relations that should exist between railroad corporations and their employees. He sets aside the doctrine that these corporations should enjoy the same right of dismissal that individuals possess, on the ground that they perform public functions; and since in practice the exercise of this absolute right interferes with their efficiency as common carriers, it is to be limited in such a way that the public convenience shall not suffer. He argues that a working theory must represent the facts, and ascribes the present friction and confusion to the false belief of the laborer that his association affords real protection, and the false assumption of the manager that his right of dismissal is arbitrary; the actual state of the case being that the association is often beaten, and that the manager does not dare exercise the right he claims. Mr. Adams is ready with a solution, and seeks it through the machinery of representation which has served us usefully in other matters. He would have the permanent force enjoy tenure during good behavior and be protected in this tenure by a tribunal, in the choice of which it should be represented; and the board of representatives should, besides, operate in all matters wherein the interests common to the company and its men are concerned, such as hospital, pension and insurance funds. He enters upon the plan of organization in detail, and points out many benefits likely to ensue to the morale and happiness of the force, in addition to the prevention of strikes, which is rather a benefit to the community. The frank way in which real conditions are recognized in this paper is perhaps its most notable feature, at the present stage of the agitation, but the lines of practical remedy laid down will excite valuable discussion. It is Mr. Adams's forte to agitate minds, rather than the masses; and this paper is likely to disclose wide differences of opinion. The geographical article on Mt. St. Elias, and the physiological one upon contortionists, are also to be mentioned, as novelties.

—The April *Century* is professedly a centennial number, and it makes prominent the fact that in the close of our long celebration of the gradual forming of the nation, from the fight at Concord to the successful inauguration of the Constitution, the popular mind is bent less upon the historical moment of our birth as a nation than on the character of "the father of his country." This is Washington's day, and we seem likely to see a renewed expression of that still inherited popular sentiment which attended him during his journey to New York, and surrounded him at the moment when he took the oath with a veneration which is unique in history. These new articles narrate in detail the incidents of the months of March and April pertaining to the inauguration, and are intended to bring forward especially the social aspects of the occasion, and the individuality of the men and women who took part in it. They contain also a graphic account of Washington's habits in private life at Mount Vernon, his family interests and his attachments of friendship, with many interesting cuts. Particularly noticeable here, and what continues to strike the student of the memoirs of the time with increasing force in proportion to his intimate acquaintance with them, is the impression of greatness which Washington never failed to make upon men who saw him. Fisher Ames's account of his feelings in gazing upon the ceremony is an admirable example of this; and he was but one of a cloud of witnesses which might be called to the power of Washington's character in his own person. It was not what we call "magnetism," of which, perhaps, Napoleon is the most complete modern example. It had in it a reverence which subdued affection and gave mere idolatry a secondary place; and much as Washington's greatness is still esteemed, it is likely that the real sense of it is less now than in his own age. His character had none of that brilliancy which fills the smallest-brained hero-worshipper at once. Like a mountain, it needs to be lived with before it is seen in its true magnitude, and no study can take the place of that score of stormy public years during which his contemporaries lived with him. It is fitting that at the last of our patriotic fêtes in memory of the founders, the country should be called upon to look upon that solitary figure which commands the time, and to reflect upon that personal character great and sound enough to be the first bond of the national union.

—The *Atlantic* yields a new example of Dr. Holmes's unflagging verse on the favorable subject of his contemporaries—in this case a eulogy of Lowell, on the occasion of his seventieth birthday, in which the height of admiration is generously and fittingly expressed. There is much other verse in the number, but the prevailing feature is biographical. F. C. Lowell writes at length on Thomas Basin, a French bishop of the fifteenth century, and records the confusions of the times with an effect of confusion on the mind. Miss Guiney contributes "An Outline Portrait," which, however, is so overlaid with details of all sorts of people that it might better be described as done in small hatchings than in outlines. The subject is Lady Danvers, the mother of Herbert and the friend of Donne, but the latter is the figure that stands out most distinctly on the page. Miss Preston continues her charming rendering of Cicero's old age, devoting this number to the last year of his life. No one has better succeeded in giving the air of modern and contemporary time to the most famous representative of the culture of old Rome, without which element there is a fatal lack of truth in portraits of Cicero. Mr. Merwin's examination of the place of the people in government is an interesting piece of social philosophy, though not strikingly original, and altogether too brief; the more useful part of it is the application of Rousseau's principle of pity, and the happy citation from Darwin in respect to the identity of the moral and the social instinct. Mr. Merwin winds up with the somewhat unnecessary and stale maxim that "all forms of government are bad, but the worst is better than anarchy." This is to stamp his work as amateurish.

—Mr. Gosse's article in the April *Forum* upon "What is a Great Poet?" is of the nature of further remarks in explanation and defence of his much-debated essay upon the query whether America has produced one. It would have been simpler to define his term at the beginning, but he succeeds so little now that

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there was no real loss. He says, in rather an offhand way, that "the main elements of poetical greatness will be found to be originality in the treatment of themes, perennial charm, exquisite finish in execution, and distinction of individual manner." The first and last of these elements need to be more sharply separated, and the second and third involve much the same thing. But this definition can be left one side, as the writer makes little use of it. He is more interesting when he confines himself to remarks the value of which depends on æsthetic rather than logical perception. He consents to abandon Gray, principally because he did so little, and he continues to reject Marlowe, Scott, and others; but the weight of his reply is directed upon some American critics who have informed him that Dryden (and Pope by implication) are "not read in America." He defends them with warmth, and draws attention in a warning paragraph to a disposition in America to rebel against literary masters, and to substitute a plébiscite of popular taste for the judicial sentence of those learned in the canon of literature. Perhaps, on a nearer view, the signs of the times which he reads "large," would be seen to be writ exceeding small. Because one chair happens to be filled with an incompetent and loud professor, the whole university is not gone to the dogs; and as to Dryden's not being read in "Crawfordsville, Indiana," he need only to remember that "America" is a rather large piece of ground. The plébiscite has as yet found but one voice, and there is no sign that Apollo's writ has failed to run in consequence. Indeed, we doubt whether there was ever a time when Mr. Gosse's thirteen immortals (for we will not drop Gray) had more numerous readers in the republic than to-day. But his whole discussion of the subject has from the first proceeded upon mistaken lines.

—Attempts have been made at various times by different newspapers to get at the consensus of public opinion as to favorite authors, by taking a vote among their subscribers. These efforts have never been very successful, because each newspaper has its own set of readers and does not easily get beyond them. Another way of testing popular opinion is by comparing books written about authors, since these books are naturally made to sell, and so have reference to a supposed public opinion, wise or unwise. Some interesting results may perhaps be found by comparing the last three books published, of this kind, in the United States, namely, Mr. W. H. Rideing's 'Boyhood of Living Authors' (1888), Mrs. Sarah K. Bolton's 'Famous American Authors' (1888), and 'Authors at Home,' edited by J. L. and J. B. Gilder (1889). It is important to notice that, of these, Mr. Rideing is an Englishman residing in Boston; Mrs. Bolton resides at Cleveland, Ohio, and Mr. and Miss Gilder live in New York. We thus have represented the New York, Boston, and Ohio points of view. In one case, we have a man's selection, in another case a woman's, and in the third case a man's and a woman's conjointly. 'Authors at Home' comprises twenty-six living American authors, Mr. Rideing's book fifteen, and Mrs. Bolton's twelve. We thus have sufficient material for a tolerably fair comparison. All the editors have evidently tried, if only for business purposes, to give a properly varied selection; and when we put them all together, the basis of inference will be still larger. The authors selected in the largest and latest of these books are as follows: Aldrich, Bancroft, Boker, Burroughs, Cable, Clemens, Curtis, Eggleston, Hale, Harris, Harrison, Hay, Higginson, Holmes, Mrs. Howe, Howells, Leland, Lowell, Mitchell, Parkman, Stedman, Stoddard, Mrs. Stowe, Warner, Whitman, Whittier. Mr. Rideing includes ten out of these twenty-six, and adds Boyesen, Fawcett, Knox, Stockton, and Trowbridge. Mrs. Bolton also includes ten —not always the same with Rideing's—and adds Carleton and Gilder, but puts in none of Mr. Rideing's supplementary list. It is in placing the three books side by side and tabulating the results that the chief interest of the inquiry consists.

—It appears by comparing the lists that seven authors are found on all three of them: Aldrich, Higginson, Holmes, Howells, Lowell, Stedman, Warner. All these except Howells were born in New England, and all but Howells and Stedman still reside there. Six appear on two lists: Cable, Clemens, Eggleston, Hale, Stoddard, Whittier. Just half of these were born in New England, and all but two (Eggleston and Stoddard) now live there. Twenty appear on one list only: Bancroft, Boker, Boyesen, Burroughs, Carleton, Curtis, Fawcett, Gilder, Harris, Harrison, Hay, Mrs. Howe, Knox, Leland, Mitchell, Parkman, Stockton, Mrs. Stowe, Trowbridge, and Whitman. Of these twenty, six were born in New England and five now have that as their habitation. Of the whole thirty-three, fifteen, or a little less than half, are natives of New England, and fourteen now reside there. It is a rather remarkable fact that a section of the country now relatively so small should hold its own so well in literature. And the wider region, described by Mrs. Mary H. Ford at the recent Western Authors' Convention as "the effete East," seems still to have the field pretty fully to itself. It must, however, be frankly admitted, in conclusion, that this numerical result is very far from exhibiting any accurate or trustworthy consensus of opinion. Some prominent authors, not now residing in America, as Harte and James, are altogether omitted from these lists. In some cases, accidental circumstances have excluded certain authors, as when Mrs. Bolton omits Whittier and Mrs. Stowe because she has written of them elsewhere. There are also some inevitable elements of inaccuracy, such as the greater immediate popularity of belles-lettres literature as compared with history; it by no means follows that Warner, for instance, has secured a more permanent place in literature than Bancroft or Parkman because he is on three lists and each of the others on one only. All that can be said of estimates based on this kind of selection is, that perhaps it is a shade more significant than a post-office ballot, or the vote for Presidential preferences on a railway train.

—Dr. H. Bening, in the Journal of the Historical Society of Lower Saxony, questions the claim of the Angles to the honor of giving their name to England. The claim rests mainly on the testimony of the Venerable Bede, who wrote nearly 300 years after the Saxon invasion; while neither Gildas nor any other contemporary writer mentions the Angles at all. It seems unlikely that the Angles would take part in such an enterprise as the invasion of Britain. They lived in the eastern part of Schleswig, on the Baltic; if they used their own ships, they would have to sail quite round Denmark; if not, they would have to go across country to the North Sea and find ships there. Moreover, it is improbable that the Angles would join the Saxons in such an enterprise. They were, in the fifth century, and till quite recent times, a purely Jutish, or Danish, people; not till the beginning of the present century was the Danish language supplanted by the German. There was, however, a people inhabiting a large district on both banks of the lower Weser, a branch of the Saxon race—the *Engern*, or Enger-Saxons. It seems highly probable that it was this tribe that joined the Saxons in their invasion of Britain, settled on the eastern coast, and, at the formation of the Heptarchy, gave their name to the new kingdom. *Eng-land* is even more obviously derived from *Enger-land* than from *Angle-land*.

—Apropos of our review of Count von Eckstädt's 'Shakespeare und Shakspere,' found in another column, it seems proper to call attention to the great literary discovery just communicated to the world through the columns of the Berlin *Gegenwart* by Prof. Moritz Carriere, the Munich "Aesthetiker." This discovery, whose title to the supreme rank in the literature of mare's nests will hardly be called in question, is simply that Goethe's "Faust" was stolen from Lessing. After reading the first of Prof. Carriere's two articles, we were inclined, though fully aware that the Teutonic professorial intellect seldom sports, to think the whole a clever bit of persiflage. As persiflage, at any rate, it would have been decidedly clever; one might go far to find a neater *reductio ad absurdum* of the method of the Baconians, which is, be it observed, a different thing from the Baconian method. But upon reading the second article, which is mainly occupied with Count von Eckstädt's "researches," and concludes with a formal application for membership in the "tolerant church" of the Baconians, we find reason to fear that Prof. Carriere is in dead earnest. His argument is like this: Lessing writes a "Faust" and loses the manuscript. He visits Leipzig while Goethe is studying there, but the latter, instead of cultivating the famous man, as we should expect, takes pains to avoid him. Then presently we begin to hear of a "Faust" by Goethe. He reads scenes to his friends, and excites great expectations, but refrains from publishing anything until after Lessing's death. Lessing goes through life with a poor opinion of Goethe's poetical powers. Musing long on this train of suspicious circumstances, Prof. Carriere one day suddenly saw a great light: Goethe had cabbaged Lessing's "Faust," and, translating its prose into Hans Sachs doggerel, had passed it off for his own. The clue once found, mysteries began to clear up and corroborative evidence to appear at every turn. "Faust" is full of Lessing's ideas. The prose scenes are Lessing untranslated. And so forth. As a humorist Prof. Carriere would deserve fuller exposition and high praise; but viewing him as a serious writer, we can only recommend hellebore taken in as large doses as the family physician will countenance.

THE NEW ENGLISH DICTIONARY.—I.

A New English Dictionary on Historical Principles. Founded mainly on the materials collected by the Philological Society. Edited by James A. H. Murray, with the assistance of many scholars and men of science. Part iv, sec. 1. Bra—Byz, completing vol. i (A and B). Part iv, sec. 2. C—Cass, commencing vol. ii. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1888.

THE fourth part of the new dictionary of the Philological Society, our notice of which has been too long delayed, finishes the first volume and begins the second. It is, accordingly, divided into two sections. The first includes the words from *Bra* to the end of the letter B. The second extends in the letter C to the word *Cass-*

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weed. With the first section are issued the preface and the introduction to the one completed volume, which contains the words beginning with the first two letters of the alphabet. The undertaking has certainly a long way to travel before it can come even in sight of the end; but it is a good deal to have it started so successfully on the road to fulfilment.

The progress of the work necessarily furnishes ampler opportunities to test its value. Familiarity with it, so far from breeding contempt, impresses one more and more with its general excellence and with its absolute indispensableness to every student of the language. As it advances, there is naturally exhibited greater skill in handling the immense stock of material that has been collected. Two qualities have marked it from the outset in which it finds nowhere a superior in similar undertakings in any tongue. One of these is the skill with which the aid of typography has been called in to facilitate reference by the arrangement of paragraphs and the employment of different sizes and styles of type. This has doubtless added largely to the expense; but it is no easy matter to reckon the saving of time and labor effected by it, to say nothing of the benefit to the morals by its giving no occasion to the display of that wrath which the consultation of most dictionaries has a tendency to provoke.

This is, however, a view of it from the purely material side. There is another in which it stands just as high. Something more than a mere accumulation of facts, no matter on how grand a scale, is essential to the carrying out of a task of this kind. Upon no one more forcibly than upon him whom necessity compels frequently to consult dictionaries, does the truth of the poet's assertion impress itself that while knowledge comes, it is wisdom that lingers. The vagaries, the fancies, the guesses into which lexicographers have run in the effort to explain what they did not understand, or to impart to others knowledge they did not possess themselves, have not always tended to inspire confidence in the men who are striving to carry the burden of an omniscience to which they were not equal. Especially has this been true in the department of etymology. It is the distinction of those concerned in the present undertaking that they have not sought to embarrass future investigation by present conjecture. This means more than at first appears. Lexicographers, even if timid themselves, have to a remarkable extent the courage of other men's convictions. They are perfectly willing to give currency to a definition or a derivation which they could never have been induced to originate upon their own responsibility. It is not so in this instance. Nothing is asserted upon mere authority. The editors, even when stating the suggestions of others, refrain from giving them their own sanction.

In only one instance, so far as we have observed, have they laid themselves open to criticism upon this score; and the variation from their usual practice is noteworthy enough to merit special comment. It occurs in the case of the somewhat peculiar expression *brown study*. The adjective here has assuredly the general idea of 'deep,' 'profound,' 'abstracted.' It is hard to fix upon the phrase the sense of 'gloomy meditation' by which Johnson defined it; and the particular meaning given to it in this dictionary of 'an idle and purposeless reverie' is certainly not common. But it is in the explanation of its origin that conjecture appears here for once to have triumphed over judgment. The meaning is declared to have apparently come in the first place from *brown* in the sense of 'gloomy,' but that this sense of the adjective has to a great extent been forgotten. When, however, we turn to the adjective itself, we find that so far from such a sense having been forgotten, there is not the slightest record that it ever existed. The signification of 'gloomy,' 'serious,' is, indeed, imputed to it, but imputed to it solely for the sake of accounting for the origin of *brown study*, to which a cross-reference is made. No actual example of such a usage is furnished. It is hardly necessary to remark that this is not a method of derivation that advances knowledge, and the origin of the meaning of *brown study* remains as much in the dark as ever. It may be added that *stiff* seems formerly to have been an equivalent expression. In the romance of William of Palerne one of the characters is represented as having fallen "into a styf studie" (1, 2981), and the same usage with slight variations can be found in lines 4038 and 4056 of the same poem.

This is, as we have stated, an illustration of a too common practice on the part of lexicographers; but in spite of our illustration the editors of this dictionary are remarkable not for falling into it, but for not falling into it. A notice of a work of this kind has, indeed, from its very nature a tendency to give to flaws and omissions a disproportionate importance, and therefore to convey to the reader an essentially wrong impression. The reviewer can only speak of the merits of the performance in general terms; it is only when he comes to point out defects that he is under the necessity of descending to details. It would be impertinent as well as unimportant for him to recount how many mistakes of his own had been corrected, how much new light had been thrown upon matters that had been previously obscure, how many complete gaps in his knowledge had been filled up. It seems, therefore, an ungracious act to dwell upon specific errors; for unfortunately particular fault-finding always makes a much greater impression than general commendation. Still, it is only in this way that there can be any hope of finally securing that accuracy and completeness of knowledge which should be the ultimate aim of all those interested in English lexicography.

The present work is certainly not perfect. This is by no means a very serious objection. If, indeed, men waited for perfection before undertaking a task of this kind, nothing would ever be accomplished at all. But in general its faults are rather of a negative than of a positive character. The important thing to be noticed is, that while there are deficiencies in the work, as was perhaps inevitable, there are very rarely errors. To illustrate precisely what we mean, we give one specimen of the very few faults of the latter kind that can be found in the first volume. It occurs under the word *arrest*. From the Summoner's tale of Chaucer there is quoted, with a definition peculiar to itself, the following couplet, which, for the sake of convenience, we put in modern orthography:

> "An irous man is like a frantic beast,
> In which there is of wisdom none arrest,"

The meaning of the sentence is clear. An exceedingly angry man, the poet tells us, has the nature of a frantic beast over which no restraint, no check, is exercised by wisdom. *Arrest* has consequently its not unusual sense of 'stoppage, stay, check.' But in this dictionary there is manufactured for the word in this particular couplet a signification of 'remaining, abiding, continuance,' which is utterly unsuited to the context, and for which the passage is the sole authority given.

From errors of this sort the work is, however, almost entirely free. It is naturally in the line of omissions that a far larger list of imperfections can be produced. Upon one point in particular we have insisted previously, and the fact that it seems to us a matter of the very first importance must be our excuse for recurring to it again. This is to the effect that the dictionary fulfils but imperfectly its duty as a record, not of usage, but of the best usage. It ought to be a work to which we can turn with absolute confidence, whenever the question of taste or propriety comes up, that everything, or at least enough, has been recorded to settle the question in dispute decisively. When Horace said that usage was the standard of speech, he did not mean the usage of this man or that man indifferently, but the usage of the best. We should think little of a Latin lexicographer who should furnish as authority for some special meaning or construction the words of one of the authors of the Augustan History, and should leave unrecorded those of Cicero illustrating the same usage. We fail to see why this same standard should not be set up for an English dictionary; or, to put the idea in a similar concrete form, the value of the work to men of letters would be vastly enhanced if it gave us more of Newman, Ruskin, Tennyson, and Browning, and less of Gen. Peronnet Thompson, a writer who is here quoted with a frequency out of all proportion to his importance.

We are far from meaning to assert that the great authors are not often cited, or that they are not cited where their authority is of the greatest weight. Our contention is, that too frequently they are not cited where it is of special importance that they should be—that is to say, in the cases where the usage is at all striking or peculiar, or where the word or expression is uncommon. The definitions are given, but sometimes not the best illustrations, and that, too, in instances where the material must have been in the hands of the editors. Take, for example, the use of *buskined* as applied to tragedy. Milton's 'buskined stage' in the "Il Penseroso" is of vastly more importance as authority than the three quotations given, though even they are taken from Massinger, Young, and Hazlitt. His use of "canon laws" in "Comus," unrecorded here, outweighs any extract furnished to illustrate the attributive sense of this or similar expressions. Dryden, in the "Annus Mirabilis," speaks of *building* ships. We are given here as an example of such usage a quotation from the records of the proceedings of Parliament a few years before. When we leave the class of words about the meaning of which there is little or no dispute, and come to significations of a more peculiar character or of more doubtful propriety, the omission to cite from the highest attainable authorities is a matter of more serious moment. Surrey, for illustration, speaks of "the *brittle* port," where the anchor fails to hold. Keats, in his "Endymion," uses *brush* of the tail of a lion instead of a fox. In one of his poetical epistles he mentions a "*canvas'd* ship." More marked, however, than any of these is the omission to record Tennyson's use of *byre* in his poem of "The Victim," in which he says that "thorpe and byre arose in fire." The failure to insert it is the more noticeable because in this piece the word seems to be used—it is impossible to say that it is used—in a sense which in this dictionary is expressly condemned.

So much for deficiencies of this character. They are of the only kind for which we are disposed to hold the editors at all responsible. It is hardly they with whom fault can be found for the failure to record words or meanings that have been omitted, or instances of earlier

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or of later usage. The examples have not been given because they have not been received. That there are such failures is only what might have been expected. One of them occurs in the expression *by and by*. It is used by Chaucer in the sense of nearness in space as well as of nearness in time. In the Knight's tale we are told of two wounded knights lying on the battle-field "by and by." The glossaries, curiously enough, define this as 'separately,' which can hardly be said to furnish any sense at all. The context requires it to be used with the signification of 'close together, side by side.' The proverbial phrase *sift to the bran* is given; but not the equivalent and apparently earlier one, *bolt to the bran*, which is found in the Nun's Priest's tale, though the passage containing it is quoted under *bolt* to illustrate that particular word. The unnoted variant form *brother-by-law* occurs for *brother-in-law* in the dedication of Gascoigne's 'Complaint of Philomene' (1577). Again, in Ben Jonson's play of "The Epicene," *broken-up* is employed to signify 'corrupted, vitiated,' and in fact is so explained. *Caperer* is the contemptuous term applied to a dancing-master by Shadwell in his comedy of "The Volunteers." This same writer is authority for *caravan* in the slang sense of a 'dupe,' which is given in this dictionary; but his further use of it in the signification of 'a kept mistress' is not recorded. Yet with this meaning it appears twice certainly in his play of "The Woman Captain." Again, *capriccioso* appears here only as an adjective denoting a direction in music. Yet it is used as a noun by Smollett in his 'Ferdinand Count Fathom' (chap. 31), where it denotes a musical performance.

Of some of the words or meanings here given earlier usage can be recorded. *Bum-rolls*, quoted from Killigrew, 1665, can be found in Ben Jonson's "Poetaster." *Brisk* as applied to wine, with a quotation from Shakspere, is used by Green of claret in his play of "James IV." The earliest quotation for *Cantaloup* is of the date of 1839. It is a little surprising to see it spoken of as employed chiefly in the United States, for the cultivation of the variety was long ago introduced into England. Lord Chesterfield at London, writing under the date of December 23, 1748, asks Dayrolles at the Hague for some seed of the Cantaloup melon. "The Cantelupes," he adds, "are in my opinion the best sort of melons; at least, they always succeed best here." In subsequent letters he makes further references to them.

We are far, however, from attaching special importance to these omissions, the number of which could without difficulty be enlarged. It is inevitable that every additional year will add to the stock of knowledge of the words here recorded. Early or later illustrations of use will be found, and to a slight extent new significations. New words will be revealed which have escaped notice. It is sufficient praise of this dictionary that it has brought together and made accessible an immense body of facts, systematically arranged and edited throughout with care, with learning, and with judgment. Upon this solid base future generations can confidently build with fuller knowledge the perfected work, and this is the first time that such a possibility has existed in the case of our tongue. Much may be added; but there is very little that will need to be revised.

Letters, Poems, and Selected Prose Writings of David Gray. Edited, with a biographical memoir, by J. N. Larned. Buffalo: The *Courier* Co. 1888. 2 vols.

THESE memorial volumes present the history and something of the work of one of those men who from one cause or another are felt to have left no adequate result of their lives, of whom we commonly say that the man was more than the work. The charm of personal character, the sense of unexpressed power, lead their friends to gather together such fragments and records as may indicate the one they knew, and especially recall and define his memory to themselves. This life of David Gray is conceived and executed in this spirit. He was known as a public man in his locality, being the editor of the Buffalo *Courier*, a paper which was conducted by him in accordance with high principles of journalism; and he was thus brought into relations with fellow-editors and some literary men, while holding an enviable position in the respect of his own community. But he was a journalist against his will. Born in Scotland, in 1836, he emigrated in his boyhood with his father's family, and settled on the Wisconsin prairie, when that was on the line of the ever-moving frontier; there he grew up on a farm, with scanty schooling: and, by native bent, notwithstanding the unfavorable conditions of life, developed a strong taste for poetry. The passages which describe his country boyhood and the growth of warm friendship with the son of a neighbor, who also had been touched, but not filled, with the poetic faculty—their evenings and nights together, of which the description and the records are still fresh with young and untried enthusiasm—are almost pathetic. They would come together, after the labor of the day, which made them feel an inch shorter at night, as Gray says, and share their new treasures, rare in a country of few books, Byron and Moore, Poe, Coleridge, and the other poets of the ruling taste, with real literary passion; and, of course, they wrote verses and confided them to each other, and thought of fame. This is the opening of Gray's life, a portion of it which always lay behind him like a dream, and was evidently affectionately cherished in his memory.

Real life began for him when he went to Buffalo, at the age of twenty, as Secretary of the Library of the Young Men's Christian Union. From this employment he drifted into business, and shortly after became connected with the paper he was to serve as a reporter of the produce market. He did not feel his early hopes slipping away from him, and the grasp of circumstances begin to throttle the inner life, without regret; but he accepted his lot, and became city editor and afterwards editor-in-chief. He was drawn into journalism, and the profession absorbed his energy. The life which is narrated here, however, is not a business career, but his companionship with friends, with whom his exceptional nature made him a favorite. He sometimes wrote verses, many of them upon public occasions; and during a three years' absence in Europe he sent letters to the paper which make up the second of these volumes. These descriptions of travel, mainly, of course, from Italian soil, but also from England, Germany, Sweden, Russia, Switzerland, and the East, exhibit a mind with great capacity for the enjoyment of nature, with sensibility to the more popular (we do not use the word in a depreciating sense) works of art, and with a strong response to historical association. They afford the surface view, full of color and enthusiasm, which the rapid traveller obtains in foreign lands, but without finish of style or that picturesque or humorous detail which the present taste enforces; but, so far as they illustrate Gray's nature, they give an impression of one excellent in himself and desiring excellence. The remainder of his literary work consists of a few poems, of which one can say only that they show the spark of poetic feeling. A few of them are much better than the rest, and in those which still glow with the contemporary passion of the war, one feels the pulse of the nation; but the work of unripe years has too large a share in the collection, and even in maturer compositions the verse is too obviously the echo of those poets whom Gray loved. What one sees in them is rather the mind passive to poetic influences, whether from books or in nature and daily life, than the mind active with its own secret and underived energies. The poems, like the letters, bespeak rather than express the man; and this is the impression which he seems to have made upon his circle of acquaintances.

He died in 1888, after a few years of sadly interrupted health, in painful circumstances, being in a railway accident while on his way to attempt to recover strength, although then his invalidism gave little promise of any permanent improvement. The event drew forth many public tributes of respect for a useful and honorable career as a man of his day in the affairs of his own people; and, though he failed to realize his hopes, and seems to have felt a sense of waste in his life, this biography testifies amply to high character and to duty faithfully done in a measure which leaves no occasion for regret.

Wordsworthiana: a Selection from Papers read to the Wordsworth Society. Edited by William Knight. Macmillan & Co. 1889.

IT is observed in this volume that Wordsworth has been "fortunate in his eulogists"; but this is but half the truth. He has been fortunate in the whole class of minds he has attracted; and the names of those who have taken part in the proceedings of the Wordsworth Society, and whose contributions are here reprinted, are a striking illustration of this fact. From these gentlemen one would expect criticism either fine or solid, but it is a proof how completely the criticism of Wordsworth is exhausted to find that these papers are no more than gleanings after the harvest. The cardinal points, of course, are necessarily here. They are Wordsworth's philosophy, his morality, and his regard for nature. The first topic is, as usual, unfruitful; the discussion of his "Platonism" by Mr. Shorthouse, and his "Theism" by Mr. Veitch, reflects the vagueness of Wordsworth's speculative dogma, which seems to have consisted really of pantheistic conceptions imperfectly appropriated by his mind, and confused by him with his own exalted feelings under the stimulus of scenery. Nothing has ever been made out of it for the satisfaction of the intellect; and perhaps the best commentary on it is Lord Selborne's declaration that, profound Christian as he is, he has never felt anything in Wordsworth's moods inharmonious with ordinary Christian belief. The Dean of Salisbury speaks of Wordsworth's morality, as does also Aubrey de Vere, but both briefly; and, as to his regard for nature, the Hon. Roden Noel makes an elaborate and somewhat mystical plea for the "pathetic fallacy," quite in Wordsworth's spirit. Hutton, whose discernment and precise taste always give attraction to his remarks, and Lowell, whose address has been widely circulated, are the real critics of the company, and both evidently felt the exhaustion of the ground.

The more interesting papers are rather about the poet than upon his works, or else deal with special aspects of the general subject, in essays that resemble extended notes. Mr. Rawnsley's collection of the remarks of the peasants who

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still remember the poet is entertaining rather than valuable, but shows us clearly the way in which he was regarded by the country-side into whose judgment poetry did not enter. Mr. Ainger's remarks on the poets who helped to form Wordsworth's style are interesting, and so are the papers on the Chaucer modernizations, by Dowden, Wordsworth's treatment of sound, by W. A. Heard, and his relation to Science, by Spence Watson. The last shows that the poet was by no means unsympathetic with science, but, on the contrary, strongly impressed by its work. Mr. Knight's list of portraits is also a valuable contribution.

The most striking portion of the collection, however, consists of the speeches of the Presidents of the Society, Arnold, Lowell, Lord Houghton, and Lord Selborne, with the reply to Arnold by Lord Coleridge and that to Lord Selborne by Aubrey de Vere. These are all admirable examples of just what such exercises should be, uniting ease and intellectual refinement with a delightful personal touch. They belong to a kind of speech-making to succeed in which is a proof of social as much as of literary cultivation. The intellectual element was more pronounced in Lowell's speech, friendliness in the rest. Lord Houghton's account of the poetic revival at Cambridge, and the expedition of the undergraduates to enlighten Oxford, is a reminiscence in itself delightful with the charm of youth, and related with the pardonable complacency of age; and Lord Selborne's simple and straightforward confession of what he personally owed to Wordsworth in his own life could not be bettered. It is from such acknowledgments as this that one learns best to appreciate the reality of Wordsworth's influence, and of poetic influence in general, to ripen the principles inculcated upon English youth and make of them a spontaneous rule of duty, and also to expand and refine the mind. The distinguished intellectual rank of many of those who have been mentioned, their marked literary taste, and the evident sincerity of their regard for Wordsworth as a helping influence, and not merely a source of æsthetic pleasure in their lives, show the deep mark he has made on the generation he taught, and usefully remind those of us who will not allow his moral weight to obscure in our minds his poetic limitations, how much an inborn race-sympathy and union in moral and national feeling may generate power out of genius even in the face of great deficiencies.

Shakespeare und Shakspere. Zur Genesis der Shakespeare-Dramen. Von K. F. Graf Vitzthum von Eckstädt. Stuttgart: Cotta; New York: B. Westermann & Co. 1888.

A BOOK-TITLE like this naturally suggests to the mind some sort of contribution to a familiar orthographical discussion. This is what we had anticipated upon seeing the title in the German trade-lists. But the volume before us turns out to be nothing of that kind. It is not concerned with telling us how to spell the name of a famous English poet, but with proving that there never was a poet of that name at all. Count von Eckstädt, sometime Minister of the kingdom of Saxony to Great Britain, has undertaken to get together all of the "facts upon which is grounded the conviction of those who regard Francis Bacon as the author of the poems and plays that appeared under the names of Christopher Marlowe and William Shakespeare." The Count's theory is, that the boorish play-actor who held horses in London, was descended from a Warwickshire peasant of French extraction, whose name was Jacque's Pierre—that is, as we are kindly informed, Jacob's son Peter. This name was then "softened" by the Warwickshire people into Shakspere, pronounced Shaxpur. On the other hand, Shakespeare was a high-sounding nom-de-guerre, under which Lord Bacon chose to publish the plays written by him, or at least that portion of them which he did not prefer to print under the other *alias* of Christopher Marlowe. To emphasize this distinction between Shakespeare and Shakspere our author uniformly prints the latter name in heavy German characters, the former in ordinary Roman. The Count gives us to understand that, before reaching his present enlightened convictions, he gnawed long and hard at the file which always tries the teeth of the Baconians—namely, the question, How could an "ignorant play-actor in a barbarous age" ever have written these astonishing plays, which even we, the heirs of all the ages, striking the stars as we do with our sublime heads, sometimes have difficulty in following! To such an old-wives' tale he can only say, *Credat Judæus Apella.*

For our part, we cannot declare upon honor that we have found the Count's pages exciting at every point, but they certainly do provide for a receptive spirit many an innocent gratification. For example, to a lover of his country it is no small titillation to find Mr. Donnelly figuring in these learned-looking foreign pages as a great "discoverer"! But the feature of the book that most commends itself to us is the evidence adduced for the Baconian authorship of Marlowe's plays. This lead should certainly be followed up. It will simplify several matters when it is generally understood that the whole traditional list of Elizabethan poets, philosophers, and statesmen is only a kaleidoscopic hoax under which Lord Bacon chose to "half conceal and half reveal" his Protean identity.

The book under consideration is a large octavo of 264 pages, printed in Cotta's best style, on heavy tinted paper, and inscribed by permission to Kuno Fischer, the well-known Heidelberg Professor of Philosophy, on the ground of his services to the memory of Lord Bacon. So imposing, in fact, are the book and its credentials that it almost makes one shudder to think of treating it with anything like levity. Upon reflection, however, we see no real ground for compunction, since the true Baconian always courts and glories in the fate of all great deliverers, the blessed privilege of suffering ridicule and obloquy for the truth's sake. Any attempt on our part to take Count von Eckstädt and his sect seriously would surely be worse than futile; but if this notice should fall under the eye of any reader, not yet a Baconian sectary, who has had his private struggle with the Baconian *crux*, we recommend him to read over, in default of anything better, Prof. Baynes's article on Shakspere in the new 'Encyclopædia Britannica.' Then, after making liberal allowance for what is mere unverifiable filling-in by the writer's fancy, let him put to himself this question: Is it possible to imagine for a man who was to write "Hamlet" and "As You Like It" a better birthplace, a more fortunate parentage, more efficient schooling, or more toward youthful experiences than those which actually fell to the lot of William Shakspere?

Calderon und seine Werke. Von Engelbert Günthner. Mit Calderon's Bildniss. Freiburg im Breisgau: Herder. 1888. 2 vols., pp. xl, 336; pp. viii, 438. 8vo.

THE last ten years have brought us a goodly number of more or less important contributions to our already considerable literature on Calderon, most of them called forth by the increased interest in the poet awakened by the two hundredth anniversary of his death, which was celebrated not only in Madrid, but throughout the European world of letters, on the 25th of May, 1881. Morel-Fatio's exemplary critical edition of "El Mágico Prodigioso" (1877) was followed by Dr. Max Krenkel's 'Klassische Bühnendichtungen der Spanier,' containing in three volumes four very ably edited but rather too heavily annotated plays of Calderon (1881–7), and by Norman Maccoll's 'Select Plays of Calderon' (1888). Among the more recent translations of our poet may be noted here Dr. Franz Lorinser's 'Don Pedro Calderons de la Barca geistliche Festspiele' (1882–7), and A. Richter's 'Udvalgte Komedier af Don Pedro Calderon de la Barca' (1880–7). More numerous, however, than critical editions and translations are publications concerning the biography of the poet, the sources and literary value of his works, and the character of the times in which they were produced. In 1880 appeared the learned Dutchman J. J. Putman's book, 'Studiën over Calderon en zijne Geschriften,' treating of the poet's life and works, and especially of the point of view he occupied in writing them. New facts of interest to Calderon's biography are brought to light, particularly by the Spaniard D. Felipe Picatoste, in his valuable monograph, 'Biografía de Don Pedro Calderon de la Barca' (1881), and also by the German E. Dorer in his essay, 'Calderon und die Hofprediger' (1887). D. Antonio Rubió y Lluch publishes a treatise on 'El sentimiento dal honor en el teatro de Calderon' (1882), and D. A. Sanchez Moguel one on the relations of the "Mágico Prodigioso" with Goethe's "Faust" (1881); while D. Adolfo de Castro y Rossi presents us with an interesting though necessarily incomplete picture of the social life of Spain in the seventeenth century as studied in the comedies of Calderon (1881).

To the above-mentioned contributions to the literature bearing on the great Spanish dramatist may now be added the work which stands at the head of this notice, and the principal aim of which, according to the author's preface, is "to render more accessible to a wider circle of readers the best works of the poet, by presenting, from an æsthetic and historical point of view, an analysis of the contents, together with the necessary explanations that would faithfully indicate the course of thought and the beauties of the Spanish original." Accordingly, of the one hundred and eight unquestionably genuine comedies, Günthner has taken up for thorough treatment all the religious and symbolical dramas, as well as such of the historical ones as are based on incidents belonging to Spanish history, selecting from the other plays and the seventy-three *autos sacramentales* only the most prominent, while the rest have been dismissed with a brief statement of their contents. The work opens with a pretty complete and unquestionably very useful bibliography of the literature bearing on Calderon, to which are to be added the illustrated and annotated edition by J. Alonso del Real (1881), mentioned on p. 27, and Norman Maccoll's 'Select Plays of Calderon.' Then follows—decidedly the best feature of the book—a succinct biography of the poet, which embodies the latest researches in the field, especially those of the above-mentioned D. Felipe Picatoste, and may be regarded as the most reliable account we now have of Calderon's life. Among other things it is worthy of mention that Günthner passes over in well-deserved silence that ballad of Cepeda's which for a time was supposed to be a production of Calderon's,

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and as such figures in the biographical part of the editions of Hartzenbusch and Maccoll.

In the second and main part of the book—"Calderon's Werke"—our author first gives us a short account of the editions of Calderon, whereupon he discusses the different classifications of the poet's works adopted by editors and commentators, choosing for his own purpose the one introduced by Valentin Schmidt in his excellent work entitled 'Die Schauspiele Calderon's dargestellt und erläutert' (1857), and closes this brief general introduction to his work with a few remarks on the metre of Calderon's plays. In these it can only be regretted that, contrary to the well-established results of modern research, Spanish verse should still be forced into the Procrustean bed of the classical iambic and trochee. But what must even more disappoint the student of Calderon is, that neither here nor elsewhere in the book has the author availed himself of the opportunity to show that he has an opinion of his own in regard to the literary value of Calderon's drama and its relations to the dramatic literature of the times; all that we find concerning such important matters as these consisting in quotations from other, chiefly German, critics, the latter of whom Günthner joins in a somewhat more enthusiastic than just appreciation of Calderon's merits as a dramatist.

Indeed, there is very little that is original or new in Günthner's treatment of the subject. Throughout the whole work, whether in the general estimate of each class of plays or in the critical remarks on each separate play, he seems to have leaned altogether too much on his predecessors, especially on Valentin Schmidt and Von Schack, whose aid, it must be said, is alalways faithfully acknowledged. Schmidt's commentary contains copious and valuable notes on the grammar, phraseology, and other points of Calderon's language, and it would have been well for Günthner, who has here again contented himself with quoting from Schmidt and Krenkel, to follow the former's example, by bringing the results of his own reading to bear on the interpretation of the still considerable number of difficult passages in Calderon. His whole mode of treatment leaves one with the impression that he had confined his study of Calderon almost exclusively to the works of that poet and the recent literature bearing on the subject, instead of basing them on independent and broad researches in the whole domain of Spanish language and literature in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. But while Günthner's work contains few if any original views or new facts, it may be cordially recommended to the student of Calderon as summing up and arranging in a convenient form the results of recent research in regard to the life and works of the most celebrated of Spanish dramatists.

English Wayfaring Life in the Middle Ages (XIVth Century). By J. J. Jusserand. Translated from the French by Lucy Toulmin Smith. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1889. 8vo, pp. 451.

No country offers a better field of operation to the historical inquirer than England. Scarcely a single phase of its inner, as distinguished from its political, history during the Middle Ages has been adequately investigated. There is no satisfactory history of its mediæval law, religion, commerce, industry, or municipal development. The abundance of accessible materials illustrating these subjects seems to receive more attention from foreigners than from Englishmen themselves. Many of the best contributions to English mediæval history have been made by such writers as Gneist, Pauli, Schmidt, Nasse, Von Maurer, Gundermann, Brunner, Von Ochenkowski, Schanz, Vinogradoff, Adams, and Bigelow. In no other country of western Europe has historical investigation been aided so much by foreigners as in England.

The book before us is a translation and expansion of a work which appeared in 1884, under the title of 'La Vie Nomade d'Angleterre,' etc. The author has taken advantage of the opportunity afforded him by this translation to revise the original treatise and to add about one-fourth of new matter.

The opening chapters describe the roads and bridges, the dangers and difficulties of travel in the fourteenth century (pp. 35–171). Then, in six different chapters, we are made acquainted with the life of the wandering herbalists, charlatans, minstrels, jugglers, and tumblers; messengers, itinerant merchants, and peddlers; outlaws, wandering workmen, and peasants; preachers, friars, pardoners, and pilgrims. The author points out how they served as links between the different groups of society:

"Pursuing their singular calling, these wanderers, who had seen so much and knew so many adventures, served to give some idea of the great unknown world to the humble classes whom they met on their way. Together with many false beliefs and fables, they put into the heads of the stay-at-homes certain notions of extent and of active life which they would hardly otherwise have had. Above all, they brought to the men attached to the soil news of their brethren in the neighboring province, of their condition of misery or of happiness, who were pitied or envied accordingly, and were remembered as brothers or friends to call upon in the day of revolt. At a period when, for the mass of mankiud, ideas were transmitted orally and travelled with these wanderers along the roads, the nomads served as a true link between the human groups of various districts" (pp. 30, 31).

M. Jusserand shows that the condition of feeling among these wanderers, and the mode in which they carried on their businesses, were interwoven with the whole social condition of England; that in all the great social and religious questions of the age the part played by the wayfarers, though little known, was not insignificant. The wandering laborer breaks the fetters which for centuries had bound him to the manor. The begging friars and pardoners grow rich on the alms of the people; but by constantly addressing the masses they end by exposing themselves; by making the crowd of its own accord condemn them, they render religious reform inevitable.

"Besides, each of these strange types deserves to be taken apart and considered not only in relation to the masses, but in itself, too; for each shows very apparently in his own person a characteristic side of the tastes, the beliefs, and the aspirations of the times; through them we may examine, as it were, one by one, the souls of the people and reconstitute them entirely; just as the nature of the soil may be guessed from the flora of a country. . . . For good or evil it may be said that the wanderers acted as 'microbes' in mediæval history, a numerous, scarcely visible, powerful host" (pp. 407, 408).

Both the plan and the execution of the work deserve high praise. The range of sources used is very wide: Rolls of Parliament, Statutes of the Realm, local histories, and publications of learned societies have been critically sifted, and have yielded a rich harvest. Matters of much general importance are incidentally discussed. Many portions of the work are at once amusing and instructive. The book is adorned with many excellent illustrations; its typography and general equipment are admirable.

We have noticed very few errors. The author confuses frank-pledge with the Sheriff's tourn (pp. 113, 133); the former was only a part of the business of the latter. "Coram Rege Rolls" ought not to be identified with "Assize Rolls" (pp. 266, 267); the former contained pleas held before the King, while the latter recorded pleas held before the justices itinerant. A more correct transcript of the document concerning London Bridge (pp. 413, 414) will be found in Hardy's edition of the Rotuli Litterarum Patentium (p. 9). According to the latter, "vobis" should be substituted for "nobis" (p. 414); "forisfecerit," for "foris faciat"; "Molinell" (= Molineux), for "Molmell." In connection with the subject of fraternities that maintained bridges and roads (p. 44), the "gilda de ponte" of London should have been mentioned; also, the "Corporation of the wardens and assistants of the bridge of Rochester." There were also certain gilds in Bristol and Ludlow which performed these functions. On page 84 attention should have been called to the numerous grants of "pavagium" contained in the Patent and Charter Rolls. Better or supplementary authorities for matters discussed on pages 238, 240, 246, and 267, are 'The Libell of Englishe Policye' (ed. Hertzberg), Lappenberg's 'Geschichte des Englischen Stahlhofes,' Kitchin's 'Winchester Fair,' and Andrews's 'Punishments in the Olden Time.' What is meant by the words "all the cases submitted for the decision of the justices in eyre" (p. 111), is not quite clear. Perhaps "all cases amenable to the jurisdiction of the justices in eyre" is the idea intended to be conveyed to the reader. The following passage is very obscure:

"Justice travelled not only in the King's suite. She was peripatetic in England, and *the magistrates from London* who had to bring her into the shires, as the sheriffs and bailiffs into the boroughs within their counties, periodically went around the country redressing wrongs. But grave abuses also slipped into *these institutions;* and, in spite of the precautions which had made *the men under the jurisdiction of the sheriffs and bailiffs* themselves the judges of these officials, numerous statutes one after the other had to declare some practices culpable and to stop them, for a time" (pp. 112, 113).

The words that we have italicized are obscure or ambiguous. The sheriffs and bailiffs of the King were excluded from exercising jurisdiction in the principal boroughs of England in the fourteenth century. But such obscurities and mistakes are rare in the volume before us. On the whole, the translation appears to be excellent.

An Investigation as to the Causes of the Great Fall in Prices which took place coincidently with the Demonetization of Silver by Germany. By Arthur Crump. Longmans, Green & Co. 1889. 8vo, pp. 198.

THE main object which Mr. Crump, the author of several previous financial and economic publications, proposes in this book, is (to use his own words) "to produce a result which shall be, as near as possible, a demonstration that prices [in recent years] did not fall owing to a scarcity of gold, but that they did decline owing to other causes, which are definitely assigned as having produced the fall in each case, apart from other and more general causes which will have affected all to some extent" We fail to find much that is new in it, and Mr. Crump, although evidently understanding his subject, fails oftentimes to express himself clearly, as will, indeed, be evident from the above quotation which we make from his preface. He follows and endorses the facts and reasoning in respect to the cause of the decline of prices set forth by Mr. David A. Wells in the well-known series of papers "On Econo-

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mic Disturbances," published by the latter during the past year—reprinting nearly the whole of one paper, and recommending Mr. Wells's "ordinary and simple" explanations to those economists who so persistently "invoke complex agencies," with the result that they "worry the scientific world with the everlasting sound of their fog-horns." Following also a similar law of investigation, Mr. Crump gives a very detailed commercial history of the supply and demand of *tea* as far back as 1863, as showing that, in the case of this great staple commodity, a price movement in the direction of a decline, and extending over many years, can be clearly and unmistakably explained "without searching in the currency domain for any subtile or obscure causes."

One view taken by Mr. Crump, which we have not before seen advanced, and which strikes us as not improbable, is, that had the mints of the world been open to "private coiners," or the free coinage of silver, "as was the case before the Latin Union took fright, the silver coins would probably by this time have bought less of commodities than they now do; supposing always that the general collapse of prices which we have seen had come about"; the closing of the mints having (after the manner of dams) restricted the supply of silver "from pouring into circulation."

Speaking of the influences which are influential in economizing or supplementing the use of metallic money, Mr. Crump uses this illustration:

"Confidence annihilates money. In our day, the amount of metal money required diminishes in an inverse ratio to the increase in the magnitude of the operations. The country shopkeeper will not trust the village blacksmith with a shilling's worth of nails for horseshoes unless he produces the coin. In the London Stock Exchange the aggregate operations of the fortnight, as shown by the Clearing-house returns, reaches from £150,000,000 to £200,000,000, all of which is settled without the intervention of a single gold sovereign. With the growth of the telegraph system, money in the shape of metal has been—in proportion to the growth of operations in which money plays a part—diminishing like dew before the rays of the sun."

Mr. Crump considers that the "case for bimetallism" has so completely broken down that "it is hardly worth while to discuss the schemes of its supporters"; and in this he is certainly in line with the London *Economist*, which, in its issue of November 17 last, expressed the opinion that if trade should revive in Great Britain, "bimetallism will soon die a natural death."

Letter-Book of Samuel Sewall. Vol. II. [Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Vol. II—Sixth Series.] Boston: Published by the Society. 1888. 8vo.

THERE is very little of interest or value to the student of our colonial history in this volume of Judge Sewall's letters. They were all written in the latter and comparatively inactive part of his long life, when his mind was more intent on his private affairs, his ailments, and the theological questions of the day than with matters of public moment. We doubt whether there will be found anything of importance, even for the genealogist. Here and there, however, there are incidents related or allusions made which recall the entertaining diarist of provincial New England. In a letter dated March 2, 1714, he protests against the acting of a play in the council chamber at Boston, affirming that even the Romans, fond as they were of plays, were not "so far set upon them as to turn their Senat-House into a Play-House." "Let not Christian Boston," he concludes, "goe beyond Heathen Rome in the practice of shamefull vanities." It is possible that Gov. Francis Nicholson and his troublesome secretary, Netmaker, were at the bottom of this project, which we presume was not carried out. The incident is of interest, as being one of the earliest, if not the very first, reference to a dramatic performance in this country.

Six years later Sewall writes to the provincial agent, Jeremiah Dummer, at London, thanking him "heartily for the effectual care you took to prevent the passing the Bill that was to forbid our making of Iron. 'Twas one principal article of the forlorn Condition our Aborigines were in, that they wanted the use of Iron: And to deprive the Planters of it, would be to reduce them to the Miseries of the Iron Age." There is a very brief allusion to a scheme of the Rev. Thomas Prince for a "Lending Library" which Sewall characterizes as "inconvenient." That the old man's thoughts towards the close of his long life turned fondly back to the home of his childhood (he was born and his youth was passed in England), is shown by the memorandum of an inquiry of his London agent, "whether Nightingals would bear the Cold of our Winter, what the Cost of a Cock and Hen," and "Desired Mr. Balston to bring me over some Primrose Roots in a Box with Earth." A few months before his death, Gov. Burnet "sent Andrew to me with his Violin. I was refreshed by many of his Tunes; he plays well, yet his Tunes are too gaudy and Luscious, that the Tune doth not appear so plainly as it should. I was stricken with Horror at the Tune and Relation of the Murder of Glencove [*sic*] by Soldiers in their Quarters at Midnight in their beds, who treated their Guests kindly."

In addition to the Judge's letters, there are given a few pages of extracts from his son Samuel's "Memorandum-book," chiefly melancholy notices of deaths and funerals. There is a short introduction by the editors, calling attention to the most interesting letters in the collection, a few brief and unimportant notes, and an excellent index. In the introduction the editors suggest that another volume might be published of Sewall's letters which are not contained in his Letter-book. Unless they are far more interesting than those in these two volumes, we believe this would be unwise. A catalogue of them, with a short description of each, would answer every purpose. We are glad to learn that this plan is being carried out with the Pickering manuscripts, which are in the possession of the Society. An analytical index of them is being prepared with great skill and care, which, if it should be printed, would give greater assistance to historical students than the publication even of all the letters and documents in full, if that were possible.

The Story of Washington, the National Capital. By Charles Burr Todd. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THIS volume of the "Great Cities of the Republic" is divided into two parts, the Historical City and the Modern City. In the former, the author shows how the city in its situation was the result of a compromise, what were the first beginnings, what grand intentions the fathers of the city had, how the city was laid out; describes its appearance in the early days, the capture by the British, the effect of the war of the rebellion, and the city subsequent to that time, which Mr. Todd aptly terms the Renaissance. The second part is given up to a description of the various public buildings, with the officers of the Government, the churches, the schools, the Washington Monument, and the chief features of Washington journalism.

Parts of the work are singularly out of place, while other parts are by no means in proportion. How, for instance, did the "Battle of the Giants," as the author terms the anti-slavery debates in Congress, to which he gives a chapter, affect the city? The treatment of modern society is very meagre, but one page being devoted to official society, when nearly all the society the city has is official.

Several inaccuracies occur, as in the statement that the District has only fifty square miles, instead of sixty-four, or that the avenues of the city run from the chief buildings; does the author know the location of Georgia, Virginia, New Hampshire, and Rhode Island Avenues, and can he tell what building they start from? The water of the city, by some inexplicable mistake, is called pure. The Capitol is reported to be 751 feet long, or nearly one-fifth of a mile in length—a very short mile. The citizens, we are told, suffer no extortions of gas companies because of the city government; on the contrary, the citizens are subject to the demands of the gas companies, and the Commissioners are powerless before them. The city is in its government far from the Utopia which Mr. Todd calls it. The number of pupils in the High School is 500 more than is stated.

There are omissions too. A most instructive and amusing chapter could, we think, have been made from the works of noted foreign tourists in the United States, describing the appearance of the capital from epoch to epoch before the war. Mr. Todd does not hint that its shabby, dirty, and dreary condition was mainly due to the existence of slavery in the District and to the dominance of the Slave Power in national affairs. As to minor matters, when he speaks of the Soldiers' Rest, he might do as he has done with other buildings—mention that it is still in existence, and that it was once used as a factory for making canes of the wood taken from Mount Vernon. When he says that the dome of the Capitol is lighted for night sessions, he might tell the reader that when the houses are in session a flag waves over them, which on adjournment is taken down. He might give the source of Washington's statue in Statuary Hall, since he has accounted for all the others. There are numerous illustrations, one of Webster's reply to Hayne. The text says that the "Senate floor is densely crowded, and in the members' chairs are many ladies," but the corresponding cut shows the floor to be far from crowded, and no ladies are visible, except in the gallery.

The History of the Roman Republic. Abridged from the History of Professor Mommsen by C. Bryant and F. J. R. Hendy. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1889. 8vo, pp. 542.

STUDENTS and teachers of Roman history, even those who possess the original work, will be glad to have in their hands the present abridgment of Mommsen's Roman History. It is not in the proper acceptation of the word an abridgment, at least as we understand that word; for an abridgment is the original work shortened by the omission of unnecessary matter, with no changes in the wording except when necessary to the connection. The work before us is a paraphrase, very skilfully made, in the language of the editors, with the rather awkward feature of an occasional sentence quoted with inverted commas from the larger work. Skilfully as the work is done, it is almost unavoidable, in a book prepared in this

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way, that there should be occasionable slips, obscurities, and defects of perspective. As an illustration, we have, p. 150, Hannibal brought as far as Fæsulæ in the spring of 217, "where he encamped." Then it goes on to say that, "stung by the sight of the devastation which marked far and wide the line of Hannibal's march through Etruria, Flaminius [who was at Arretium] hastily followed, and overtook Hannibal in the District of Cortona." From this the reader, if he got any idea of the geography at all, would certainly understand that Cortona was between Arretium and Fæsulæ. Here is an omission of facts; on page 158 we find an inverted order of events, coming from the necessities of condensation, and resulting in an actual contradiction: "Capua, Nuceria, Acerræ joined him [Hannibal], . . . but the important ports of Neapolis, Cumæ, and Nuceria remained faithful to Rome"—the last named events coming properly first in order. We are glad that the editors have abandoned Mommsen's perverse practice of dating all events by the year of the city. A very welcome feature of the book, alone worth its cost, is the list of authorities appended to every chapter.

Les Bardeur-Carbansane: Histoire d'une famille pendant cent ans. La Mission de Philbert. Par Jaques Nauroze. Paris: Armand Colin et Cie. 1889. 8vo, pp. 348.

If any parent or guardian of ingenuous youth shall take up this heavy and handsome volume and lay it down again because its title faintly resembles 'Les Rougon-Macquart,' he will make a great mistake. The work of M. Nauroze suggests that of M. Zola as distantly as Monmouth suggests Macedon, and resembles it not more than chalk resembles cheese. M. Nauroze has had, in fact, the young reader especially in his mind as he wrote, and his aim in following the history of a bourgeois family through the century 1750-1850 has been to show that, in spite of all reports to the contrary, the homely virtues of the fireside have been, and are still, traditional in France. It can hardly be said that this task was so necessary as to be inevitable, and yet one may be content to note that it has been well and pleasantly done.

The story begins at the home of Guillaume Bardeur, an honorable merchant of Rouen, in his warehouse *le Vaisseau marchand.* It will evidently concern itself chiefly with the fortunes of his twin sons, Pierre and Jean, types of the artist and of the man of affairs; perhaps, also, of the Nord and of the Midi. In the book now in hand, the mission of Philbert, who is an old servant of Guillaume Bardeur, is to discover and bring back Bernard Savien, confidential clerk of the house, and betrothed of his master's daughter, whose sudden disappearance has made a vacancy in the shop which exactly concurs with a vacancy in the cash-box. Of course, Bernard is innocent, and is brought back and marries Nanine. But the search for him leads Philbert and the twins through camp and court and grove, and even to the Bastille, and brings them into the neighborhood of many illustrious persons, known and unknown to history. The court of Versailles is seen, and the cabarets of the Pont Neuf, the Place de Grève, the Louvre, the army of Soubise, the Academies and Academicians, the ateliers of Chardon and of Boule, the salon of Mme. Geoffrin.

Covering so much ground as this—and more, for the complementary story of Bernard is given, too—and being of the nature of an historical romance, the book cannot be said to have much, or any, value as a work of art; and yet it is a book pleasantly written and pleasantly instructive. It is indeed bulky, like a quartern loaf; but if this seem a fault to older palates, it will not suggest itself as such to the keen and omnivorous appetite of the young.

The English Restoration and Louis XIV., from the Peace of Westphalia to the Peace of Nimwegen. By Osmund Airy, M. A., one of H. M. Inspectors of Schools. With three maps. [Epochs of Modern History.] London: Longmans, Green & Co.; New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

This is a genuine "Epoch" book—that is to say, it is not, like some volumes of the series, a mere chapter of English history, but aims to sketch the complicated events of the period as a whole, as they occurred in the several countries side by side. To be sure, it does not cover the entire field of history for its epoch. It is concerned wholly with western Europe in the time between the treaties of Westphalia and Nimwegen, and takes no account of that important series of events, in the east of Europe, which centred in the treaty of Oliva—a treaty as important, for those States, as that of Nimwegen was for the west. We find no fault with this. An attempt to combine the two series of events in one sketch could only have resulted in confusion and lack of unity, and the contents of the present volume form an eminently compact and united whole.

How completely this is an epoch, and not a chapter of English history, is shown by the fact that only seven chapters out of twenty-two are distinctively English chapters, although several others are partly devoted to English affairs. This is a positive merit. France and Louis XIV. formed the controlling influence in Europe at this time; Charles of England was contented to be a mere hanger-on of his cousin. The reader therefore obtains a more truthful idea of the period by noting that in it England played a wholly secondary part. From this point of view, the introductory chapter, upon the Peace of Westphalia, is of unusual excellence.

The maps possess the same merit. The first map, of Germany, shows by the use of colors the territorial changes wrought by the Peace of Westphalia. The second, of the Netherlands, exhibits clearly the acquisitions by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and especially the strategic frontier obtained by the treaty of Nimwegen—a point of view made prominent in the introductory chapter. The third illustrates the campaigns upon the upper Rhine.

The features which we have pointed out will serve to show the peculiar merit of this book. This age was the Age of Louis XIV. The treaty of Nimwegen is the central diplomatic event of this age. A book, therefore, which clearly and concisely describes the steps by which the great power of Louis was established up to the time of this treaty, places before us in small compass that group of facts which, from the point of view of general history, was the leading group of facts for the last half of the seventeenth century. We should add that the chapters devoted to English affairs are equally good, being, like the whole book, fresh and suggestive in both matter and style.

This excellent series has dragged very much of late. We do not understand why we have not yet any volume upon the Anglo-Saxon period, or upon the reign of George III., except the American and the French Revolution, in both of which English affairs are, of course, wholly neglected. Two or three additional volumes for the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, from the point of view of English history—a precedence which for this period England has a full right to claim—would be very acceptable.

Ancient and Modern Lighthouses. By Major D. P. Heap, Corps of Engineers, U. S. Army. Boston: Ticknor & Co. 1889.

Major Heap's work is made up of a series of papers which were originally published in that excellent periodical the *American Architect and Building News.* There is a peculiar fascination about a lighthouse, especially to one who approaches such a building from the sea by daylight and in calm weather, and this work will not dispel the charm. In his opening chapter Major Heap gives a very readable account of the lighthouses of the ancients and of the Middle Ages, and next passes to the history and construction of the famous Eddystone buildings, of which the present is the fourth. Passing over the interesting accounts of the Bell Rock, Skerryvore, and other buildings with submarine foundations, we come to the principal lighthouses on our own coast. We have excellent accounts, with plans and drawings, of the towers on Minot's ledge, Spectacle Reef, Tillamook Rock, and the N. W. Seal Rock. We may note that the difficulty of constructing the well-known building on Minot's ledge in Boston harbor was greater than in the cases of the Eddystone, Bell Rock, or Skerryvore towers, the present building taking the place of one destroyed by a great storm in April, 1851. Special chapters are devoted to skeleton iron lighthouses, to miscellaneous lights of all kinds, and finally to lighthouse administration. The work is agreeably written and beautifully illustrated; in fact, we may consider it as a popular scientific treatise in which an attractive subject is set forth in a very attractive manner. The accounts of the difficulties attending the erection of the various lighthouses, and of the modes in which those difficulties were overcome, are full of exciting interest. We can congratulate Major Heap on the production of a thoroughly good and permanently valuable work.

By-Ways in Bookland: Short Essays on Literary Subjects. By Wm. Davenport Adams. Lockwood & Coombes. 1889.

The pleasant series of volumes for the book-lover to which this collection of short essays belongs, quietly bound and beautifully paged, has included no more agreeable book. These essays are literary diversions—light, refined, and exacting nothing from the reader. They have no air of instruction or utility; they merely entertain. The subject, generally speaking, is minor verse of the familiar, unsentimental sort; or, if there be sentiment, it is the sentiment that smiles at itself; the verse of clever wits, of humorous confidences, always with a touch of comedy. The London Season and the Recess, Matrimony, "The Not Impossible She," The Praise of Thames, Parliamentary Eloquence, Epigrams on the Stingy, are specimen topics; and interspersed with these are essays upon such matters as the English adaptations of 'Don Quixote,' the attempts of Charles Johnson—"famous for writing a play every year and being at Button's coffee-house every day"—and of George Sand to represent *Jaques* in love, or upon the trials of reading in bed, the subscription of letters, and postscripts. In such a varied collection the substance is necessarily quotation, and the pleasure is often that of being reminded of the good things we have forgotten. It is thus that one comes on Colman's lines:

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"My muse and I, ere youth and spirits fled,
Sat up together many a night, no doubt,
But now I've sent the poor old lass to bed,
Simply because my fire is going out."

That is an old favorite; but does every one know Aubrey de Vere's exquisite quatrain?

"For me no roseate garlands twine,
But wear them, dearest, in my stead;
Time has a whiter hand than thine,
And lays it on my head."

Mr. Adams's book is preëminently one of those in which the author is the unobtrusive editor, like a friend drawing from the stores of anecdote and reading, repeating an old tale at times, but not to our tedium. Unlaborious minds will enjoy it best, the likers of "a slight thing" of cleverness. Its final postscript, "a certain Mr. O. to a recent Bishop of Norwich," we have not seen printed before: "Mr. O——'s private affairs turn out so sadly that he cannot have the pleasure of waiting upon his lordship at his agreeable house on Monday next.—N. B. His wife is dead."

Foreign Visitors in England. By Edward Smith. A. C. Armstrong & Son.

Field and Hedgerow. The Last Essays of Richard Jefferies. Longmans, Green & Co.

HERE are two widely different books, yet possessing at least one point of resemblance. Mr. Smith quotes all kinds of opinions of English manners and customs from the letters and books of more or less distinguished visitors, beginning with Von Rozmital in 1466, and coming down to Voltaire in 1730, Hawthorne in 1854, and Taine in 1872. The quotations are intelligently made and are decidedly interesting. It is curious, for instance, to find that Voltaire was as much impressed with the need of an English Academy as Matthew Arnold in these later days; and in reading Mme. Bocage's unsparing criticism of the London statues in 1750, and the Abbé Le Blanc's remark about the portrait-painters of the same period—that they "practised this noble profession as the meanest trade, for money alone, without the least ambition of fame"—one is reminded of the fact that in England changes come very slowly. Referring to the lack of cheerfulness in English society, the Abbé makes the statement that "there are families of them that have never laughed for two or three generations." The latest of the foreign visitors is M. Philippe Daryl, who writes in 1884 that in the House of Lords there are scarcely thirty politicians worthy of the name; and although a good deal might be said in favor of this proposition, it arouses the ire of Mr. Smith. For although this gentleman quotes all manner of opinions with judicial impartiality, he does not hesitate to express his contempt for those visitors who have failed to appreciate whatever is distinctively English.

Here and there in these last essays of Richard Jefferies we find a similar note of satisfaction with various things in that they are English, and a certain suspicion of all things that are otherwise. Except in this one matter, the two books are very different. It is perhaps not too much to say that Richard Jefferies was as passionately in love with the glories of nature as Wordsworth himself; and yet his writings are almost entirely in prose. How much English literature has lost by his early death will never be known; but no one can read this volume, with its delicious descriptions of country sights and sounds, and its records of the slowly changing seasons, without regretting that so keen an observer and so true a poet is gone. Unfortunately he did not realize in time that his special gift was the power to see and describe such things; unfortunately, too, he was unaware of his limitations in other directions. When he takes up such questions as the balance of trade and the competition that the modern English farmer has to face, it is easy to see that he is out of his element; but it would be hard to find elsewhere such beautiful word-pictures of English country life and scenery as he gives us here. Their charm cannot be conveyed by brief extracts, so the reader must go to the book itself and rest assured that it is worth his while.

Constitutional Government in Spain. A Sketch. By J. L. M. Curry, LL.D., late Minister of the United States in Spain. Harper & Bros. 1889.

IT is an honorable tradition which demands of the American Minister to Spain some literary fruit of his residence in that country, and this little book of Dr. Curry's is only the latest instance of bowing to it. He writes with clearness and vigor, and is able to convey much of the enthusiasm with which it is evident that he himself came to the study of a new subject. A great historical or political value he himself would be the last to claim for his pages. Those whose reading will enable them to clothe his outline with the needed details, are already beyond his help, while it may be doubted if his outline is sharply enough drawn to satisfy one coming to the topic for the first time. There would always be, to be sure, the possibility of falling back on Dr. Curry's own word, and remembering the conclusion which he reaches, viz., "With all the undoubted drawbacks, the drift in Spain is not strong, not consistent, but hopefully towards constitutional principles, promoting the general good while conserving individual rights." That is undoubtedly true. The only thing like unfairness which we have noted in the book is the failure adequately to state the aims of the existing conservative party in Spain. Sagasta contributes a chapter setting forth the Liberal programme, and in it says that the Conservatives have really no policy of their own, but are simply maintaining an expectant and negative attitude. This is too partisan a statement. Cánovas would certainly not assent to it; nor would the facts bear it out. Four appendices give sketches of some of the notable Spaniards of the century, some details of Spanish legislation, and an account of our acquisition of Florida—the last reprinted from the *Magazine of American History.*

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

A Dreamer of Dreams: A Modern Romance. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Angerstein—Eckler. Home Gymnastics for the Well and the Sick. Illustrated. From the eighth German edition. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.
Bartlett, T. Heart Stories. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Bosanquet, B. Essays and Addresses. London: Swan, Sonnenschein & Co.
Burgwyn, C. P. E. The Huguenot Lovers: A Tale of the Old Dominion. Richmond, Va.: The Author.
Chamberlain, N. H. The Sphinx in Aubrey Parish. Boston: Cupples & Hurd.
Daudet, A. Recollections of a Literary Man. Illustrated. George Routledge & Sons. $1.50.
Desty, R. Lawyers' Reports, Annotated. Book I. All Current Cases of General Value and Importance Decided in the United States, State, and Territorial Courts, with Full Annotation. Rochester: Lawyers' Coöperative Publishing Co. $5.
Dexter, S. A Treatise on Coöperative Savings and Loan Associations. D. Appleton & Co. $1.25.
Doyle, E. Moody Moments: Poems. Ketcham & Doyle.
Emerson, J. M. European Glimpses and Glances. Cassell & Co. $1.
Figuier, L. L'Année Scientifique. (32e année, 1888). Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern.
Gould, A. A Woman of Sorek: A Narrative. American News Co. 50 cents.
Ker, Prof. J. Lectures on the History of Preaching. Introduction by Rev. Wm. M. Taylor, D.D. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Kimball, E. C. Midnight Sunbeams; or, Bits of Travel through the Land of the Norseman. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.25.
King, F. M. A Man of the Name of John. Cassell & Co. 75 cents.
Kraszewski, I. I. The Polish Princess. George Munro.
Landon, J. S. The Constitutional History and Government of the United States. A Series of Lectures. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $3.
Lee, K. Stranger than Fiction: A Sensational Romance. Pollard & Moss.
Lee, Margaret. Divorce; or, Faithful and Unfaithful. Frank F. Lovell & Co. $1.
Letchworth, W. P. The Insane in Foreign Countries. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Lewis, I. N. Pleasant Hours in Sunny Lands, in a Tour Around the World. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.25.
Magnus, Lady. Jewish Portraits. Boston: Cupples & Hurd. $1.50.
Rawlinson, G. The Story of Phœnicia. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Rives, Amélie. The Witness of the Sun. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $1.
Safford, Dr. O. H. Hosea Ballou: A Marvellous Life Story. Boston Universalist Publishing Co.
Serrano, Mary J. Dragon's Teeth: A Novel from the Portuguese. Boston: Ticknor & Co. $1.50.
She: An Allegory of the Church. Frank F. Lovell & Co.
Sherman, C. P. A Bachelor's Wedding-Trip. Philadelphia: The Pen Publishing Co. $1.
Shut the Gate. American News Co. 50 cents.
Stickney. First, Second, Third, and Fourth Reader. Boston: Ginn & Co.
Swift, J. The Tale of a Tub, and Other Works. Edited by Henry Morley. George Routledge & Sons. $1.
Taylor, B. Views Afoot. J. B. Alden. 50 cents.
Taylor, Dr. J. E. The Playmate Naturalist. Illustrated. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
The Man from the West: A Novel. Pollard & Moss. 50 cents.
Valk, F. Lectures on the Errors of Refraction, and their Correction with Glasses. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $3.
Van Voorhis, E. W. A Genealogy of the Van Voorhees Family in America; or, the Descendants of Stephen Coerte Van Voorhees of Holland and Flatlands, L. I. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Vescelius-Sheldon, Louise. An I. D. B. in South Africa. John W. Lovell & Co.
Vincent, J. Vaillante: Ce que Femme Veut. W. R. Jenkins.
Ward, Prof. A. W. The Counter-Reformation. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 80 cents.
Warden, Florence. St. Cuthbert's Tower. Frank P. Lovell & Co. 30 cents.
Wasson, D. A. Essays, Religious, Social, Political. With a Biographical Sketch by O. B. Frothingham. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Wilberforce, R. Life of Samuel Wilberforce, Bishop of Oxford and Winchester. New ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.75.
Wilson, Adelaide, and Weymouth, Georgia. Historic and Picturesque Savannah. Boston: Photogravure Co.
Wood, J. G. Sixth Natural History Reader. Illustrated. Boston School Supply Co.
Wordsworth, W. Complete Poetical Works. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Wordsworth, W. The Recluse. Macmillan & Co. 75 cents.
Worthy, C. Practical Heraldry, or an Epitome of English Armory. Illustrated. Scribner & Welford. $2.25.
Wortman, D. The Reliques of the Christ. E. P. Dutton & Co.
Wright, J. An Old High-German Primer. With Grammar, Notes, and Glossary. Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Wright, Julia McNair. Nature Readers. Sea-Side and Wayside. No. 3. Illustrated. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Yeats, W. B. The Wanderings of Oisín, and Other Poems. London: Trübner & Co.

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